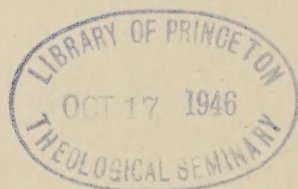
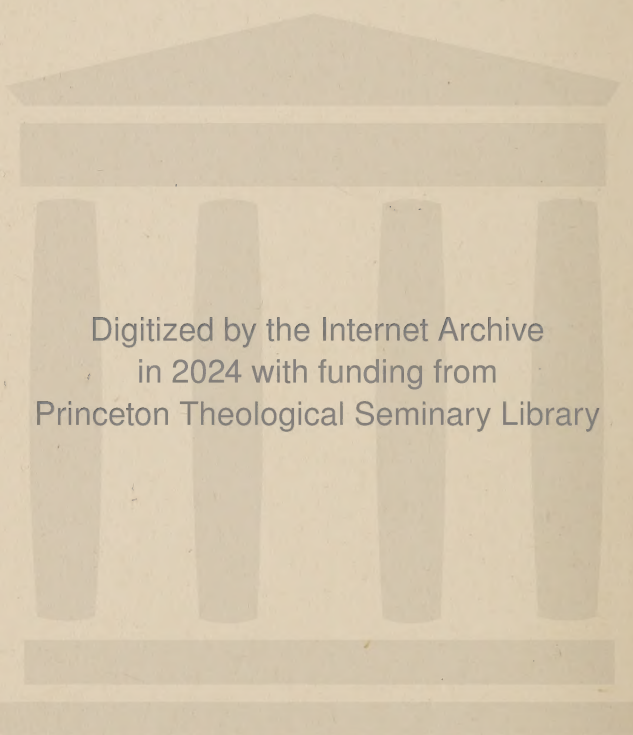


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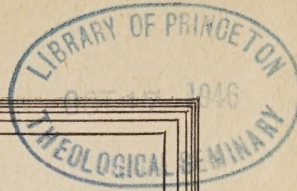
High-school Personnel Work Today

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High-school Personnel Work Today

BY

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HIGH-SCHOOL PERSONNEL WORK TODAY

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PREFACE

To meet the problems produced by conflicts of educational philosophies, methodologies, and movements, by conflicts of intellectualism and personalism, of mass methods and individualized techniques, of measurement and curriculum revision, there has developed during this century a new movement in secondary education, a movement not yet definitely named but termed here "student personnel work." As the movement has progressed and expanded, it has attracted much attention and has aroused great interest. It has also become a subject of much controversy and debate with the result that the work, which was introduced into the high schools as a solution to certain practical problems created by confusion and conflict, is today facing its own serious problems created by confusion and conflict in its own ranks.

The author is convinced that the progress of high-school personnel work is being impeded by this confusion but believes that the conflicts behind the confusion are not so serious as surface appearances might indicate. It was this conviction and belief that prompted the writing of a book based upon an extensive study of the literature. A careful survey was made of the writings of the field in order to learn the current conceptions concerning high-school personnel work: conceptions held by writers accepted as "authorities" and conceptions held by secondary-school teachers and administrators as revealed in their accounts of school practices and in the reports upon investigations of high-school personnel work in practice. It was believed that through a critical analysis, synthesis, and interpretation of the literature some sound generalizations might be made concerning high-school personnel work today.

Special attention was given to the literature of the period from 1932 to 1945, but consideration was also given to the earlier writings which continue to show an influence upon current conceptions of personnel work. From a much larger volume of literature covered, pertinent material was selected from some twelve hundred references to provide the bases for the major

generalizations presented in the book. Included in the literature examined were the contributions of those who write primarily for higher education because of the influence of both the writings and the writers upon high-school practices. Furthermore, few publications for higher education are addressed exclusively to the college personnel worker. It was also necessary to examine the literature of other areas of secondary education, such as curriculum and administration, in order to avoid the error of treating personnel work off in a corner by itself, a thing that actually cannot be done because personnel work is too closely interwoven with the other aspects of secondary education.

More consideration was given to the reports of research studies than to the descriptive accounts of school practices. Although the latter may reveal the writers' conceptions of what student personnel work should be, these accounts are often enthusiastic reports which present a picture quite different from that shown by the reports upon research studies. The investigations show too often that the enthusiastic accounts are not always supported by sound evidence. Nor were all the research studies given equal consideration. Unfortunately, some are trivial and superficial in nature; and there is good reason to believe that the pictures given in the reports on them may be no more accurate than that given in some enthusiastic descriptive accounts.

The book is written primarily for educators working in high schools—administrators, teachers, and specialists—interested in and concerned with student personnel work. It is an attempt to present a synthesis of the current theories on personnel work, to indicate their strong and weak points, to show similarities and basic agreements, and to smooth out the wrinkles that may be causing the secondary-school people to trip in their thinking about high-school personnel work today. The aim is to assist the reader to understand student personnel work, not to qualify him as a practitioner. An understanding of current theories is exceedingly important to the practitioner, but it is not sufficient. He also needs the experiences that he can acquire only through supervised training. Nor is the aim to simplify personnel work. Instead, the author tries to show how vast and complicated a task it is and how great a scope of knowledge is needed by the worker for adequate performance. Clarification rather than simplification is the purpose. In brief, the author's aim is two-

fold: (1) to bring together in a single volume the more important concepts of high-school personnel work and (2) to coordinate these concepts in order to assist high-school workers to handle more adequately certain pressing problems of student guidance today.

The author is under obligation to a greater number of persons than it is possible for her to name here. She has received valuable help from various professional experts, high-school teachers, and administrators who contributed to an improved presentation through their criticisms and suggestions. She wishes, however, to acknowledge that she is under particular obligation to Prof. Esther McD. Lloyd-Jones, of Teachers College, Columbia University, whose assistance and encouragement enabled her to acquire the insights needed and stimulated her to define her own position as distinctly as possible.

JANE WARTERS

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PART I

*Personnel Work in High School:
What and Whither?*

CHAPTER I

THE CRY OF THE CHILDREN

Education must be good as well as free. The full import of this idea was brought home to the American people, not by the words of philosophers and great teachers, but by the words of youth.

By 1930 the United States had finally achieved a long-cherished dream—mass education through free elementary and secondary schools for all its children. This was a tremendous accomplishment, one that no other nation could boast of, possibly because no other nation had ever been so constantly and so keenly aware of its dependence upon education. From its very beginning the country had recognized the close relationship existing between public welfare and education. It had speedily established free schools to ensure a literate citizenry for the good of the country, a good interpreted first in terms of religious motives, later in terms of political and commercial purposes, and even later in terms of broad social purposes.

To achieve purposes considered important for the good of the country, the American people had to have good public schools. But to be good schools for the good of the country, they first had to be good schools for the good of the individual; for in a democracy the good of the country is inextricably interwoven with the good of the individual. Consequently, when in the 1930's conditions in the country were far from good and the plight of many young individuals was too serious to be ignored, some Americans began to doubt the efficacy of this great public-school system and to question whether the nation really did have good schools, good schools that contributed to the good of the country by providing an education conducive to the good of the individual.

This and other questions were asked by the American people when the great depression made them turn critical eyes upon their institutions and caused them to wonder whether these institutions were sufficiently strong for the needs of the times. To learn

whether America had good schools, good in terms of the needs of the individual, the country turned to the individuals most concerned, its youth. Youth throughout the land were asked the question—in Maryland, in California, in New York, in country lanes, on city streets, in homes, in shops, in factories, in parks and other public places. Youth everywhere were asked, "Were the schools good for you?" And a great many answered, "No."

To some persons this reply seemed an ungrateful answer. What right had these young people to say that the schools were not good for them? Their grandparents and many of their parents would have welcomed the educational opportunities that these boys and girls held so lightly. Were not the schools as good as they used to be? Yes, they were; and there, perhaps, was the explanation of youth's answer. The schools were as good as they used to be, but the country was not as it used to be. Nor were the schools themselves really as they used to be; only the education given within them was often too much as it used to be.

To prepare youth for life in a changed society, changed schools could not follow an unchanged educational pattern and still be good schools for the good of the country. Yet this was precisely what many schools were trying to do. In 1934 the report of a national survey of high-school education presented the amazing revelation that every feature of the high-school program and practices of the 1890's still could be found in some high schools of the 1930's. Evidence from this and from other sources showed that the greater part of the educational advances had not made the slightest ripple in the placid traditionalism of thousands of American high schools.¹ It was not surprising that youth should find nineteenth-century education of little value in dealing with twentieth-century problems.

A CHANGED SOCIETY

Life in twentieth-century America is very different from life during the nineteenth century. The individual is beset with many new and complex problems. New developments in science have brought about the advancement and specialization of knowl-

¹ North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, *General Education in the American High School* (Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1942), p. 66.

edge. Today a college education is sought for practical as well as for cultural reasons, and high-school education is no longer something a person should have. It is something that he must have. Many depressed, embittered youth held their lack of education responsible for some of their most pressing problems:

"All they ask is 'how much education do you have?'"

"You have a pretty tough time without an education. It seems nowadays the more education you have, the better chance you got."

"Wished I could have went to high school."

"My education isn't high enough."¹

"Young people stop school too soon because parents can't afford to keep them there. A provision should be made to allow them to go through at least high school."²

"If the schools would have had a law stating that children up to the age of 18 are required to attend school, it would have saved me a lot of worry and suffering."³

Increased use of machinery has produced drastic changes in industry. Occupational changes are frequent; the skill requirements have changed; more skilled and semiskilled than unskilled workers are needed; and, except in time of war, the employment of youth is not wanted. The difficulties created for youth by these conditions are pictured in virtually every youth-study report. Investigators found that boys and girls left school unprepared to go to work and to adapt themselves to the changing occupational conditions, that many young people were dissatisfied with their jobs and did not know how to make satisfactory adjustments because of lack of knowledge about economic problems. Youth's explosive outbursts showed their resentment against the school's failure to give them vocational guidance that was something more than a makeshift:

"That's a weakness in all schools."

"I just advised myself."

"I done all my own planning."

"I wish I had had some help."

¹ HOWARD M. BELL, *Youth Tell Their Story* (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1938), pp. 85, 87, 148.

² *Ibid.*, p. 252.

³ *When Philadelphia Youth Leave School at 16 and 17* (Philadelphia: Junior Employment Service of the School District of Philadelphia, 1941), p. 18.

"They led me wrong."

"They don't know their stuff. People get misguided by them."

"Vocational teachers call the girls in about three times a year, but it doesn't help much."

"I had my palm read."¹

The reports also showed that youth's needs did not exist in isolation. Deprivation and frustration in one adjustment area produced problems in another:

"My young man is unemployed, so he doesn't call any more."

"I got the gate from my girl because I was out of work so long."

"I can't marry, as I'm the only one at work in my family."

"We broke off—no money."²

The ways of life have changed. Urbanization has increased; transportation and communication have improved tremendously. The population is more mobile; interdependence has replaced independence. The personal, permanent, responsible human relationships of the agrarian society are seldom found in the anonymous, impersonal, irresponsible life of the modern city. The home has changed, losing many of its functions. Home ownership has decreased; the small apartment and limited family predominate. Children see less of their parents; the mother's work is often outside the home. The authority of the home has weakened. The influence of the neighborhood has declined, and the influence of the church has changed. Much has been written concerning the implications of these changes. And youth have the notion that not all effects are to their advantage. In a surge of insight they protest with clumsy frankness and vigor:

"Church should keep up with the times."

"Churches are commercialized too much. To go to church is like going to a business house. . . ."³

"I often think that the church as I see it almost misses its purpose. I wish I knew why I never really look forward to going to church on Sunday. . . ."⁴

¹ BELL, *op. cit.*, p. 79.

² N. P. MCGILL and E. N. MATHEWS, *The Youth of New York City* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940), p. 31.

³ R. G. FULLER, *A Study of Youth Needs and Services in Muncie, Indiana* (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1938), pp. 147, 152.

⁴ G. W. LOVEJOY, *Paths to Maturity* (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina, 1940), p. 101.

"Parents should take more interest in the activities of young people."

"Young people should have more companionship with parents."¹

"Get our parents or older people of our community interested in the young people."

"People keeping their children in a little more and teaching them training."

"Parents do not take enough interest in children."²

Commercialized entertainment has caused many persons to lose or to fail to develop the art of self-entertainment. Youth's blunt, sophisticated comments on their use of leisure time shocked and alarmed the American people:

"Getting drunk."

"Nothing to do, just do nothin'."

"I sit in the square."

"Gamble, shoot craps, read, and play pool."

"See what devilment we can get into. We generally get a bottle of whiskey and all get canned."³

"Necking, smoking, and drinking, cussing."

"Boys are drinking cursing gambling and stealing. The girls are gossiping."⁴

As adults, twentieth-century youth will deal with many problems not faced by nineteenth-century citizens. Modern life is creating new problems of physical and mental health. It is making much greater demands upon the individual's emotions. Work today, for the most part, requires less physical strength, more nervous energy, and greater emotional endurance. Moreover, as the social and political order increases in complexity, it becomes increasingly difficult to be a good citizen. Twentieth-century problems require more social and political intelligence than did those of the nineteenth century. Mass propaganda, a by-product of improved communications, is only one of the problems requiring greater skill in citizenship.

Increased interdependence requires increased skill in cooperative living. Improved transportation and communication are diminishing the power of many old methods of social control. A new kind of discipline or control is needed to help youth to

¹ FULLER, *op. cit.*, p. 149.

² LOVEJOY, *op. cit.*, p. 217.

³ BELL, *op. cit.*, pp. 166, 168.

⁴ LOVEJOY, *op. cit.*, p. 167.

change attitudes of "let George do it" and "it's all right if you can get by with it" to more wholesome ideas of freedom in terms of individual responsibility. Untrained in self-discipline, many youth are seeking security in authoritarian control:

"Keep boys and girls home nights."

"Curfew is a wonderful thing."

"Not close enough supervision at Y.M."

"Get rid of beer and liquor entirely. Probably complete prohibition."¹

"If there is no work for you, sign for the CCC, because you have three good meals a day and you go to bed at 9 o'clock each night and get up at 5:45 A.M. and you are out of trouble."

"I would like to know could I go back to a junior high school just until I could pick up something after school because there is a lot of temptation out in the street and I do not have a prison record and I do not want one."²

Others, with an earnest desire to become mature responsible adults, feel that in this business of growing up they need assistance, not absolute direct control:

"Education toward higher moral standards."

"I got absolutely no help at home [on sex education] and neither do most people."

"Schools should have a program for getting boys and girls acquainted."

"More personality and character building in high school. More open-house activity for both sexes."

"More Sociology in High School. Should learn how to get along with people."

"There is need for more guidance in high school. . . ."

"Organize hobby classes. Encourage youth to take more training during leisure time, help them plan, advise. . . ." ³

"Parents having meetings with their children and everyone talking things over and let other people help them to decide what can be done to help. Too, parents should talk to their children more, and try to help them unravel the little things that make some people so unhappy."⁴

The home, the church, and industry are no longer meeting all responsibilities formerly met by them because they do not have

¹ FULLER, *op. cit.*, pp. 149, 153, 154.

² *When Philadelphia Youth Leave School at 16 and 17*, pp. 44, 45.

³ FULLER, *op. cit.*, pp. 146, 148-153.

⁴ LOVEJOY, *op. cit.*, p. 217.

the skill, the knowledge, and the facilities needed in dealing with problems made more complex by changed conditions. If the training of youth is to be preparation for a complete life, some agency or agencies must assume these responsibilities, not apart from, but in cooperation with the home, the church, and industry.

CHANGED SCHOOLS

Conditions within the schools have also changed. In 1890 only about one-ninth of the age group were enrolled in the high schools. In 1940 about two-thirds were in attendance. This tremendous increase in the number of pupils has produced a more heterogeneous high-school population, one much more representative of the total population. In 1940, pupils produced types and degrees of educational needs vastly different from those presented by pupils in 1890. Paradoxically, increased enrollments in schools led to further adoption of the mass-production methods of industry in spite of the fact that increased diversity among pupils intensified the need for individualization of instruction. Some youth were disturbed and made unhappy by the systematization of school life and the depersonalization of pupil-teacher relationships:

"More home room and school activities."

"Social hours in the school."

"More democratic and social atmosphere."¹

"More friendly attitude on part of instructors."

"By taking more interest in the individual and in the individual's problems."

"It was too routine."

"By being friendlier."²

The educational program and procedures have also undergone changes. Educational objectives other than preparation for college have been adopted. The curriculum has changed to an enriched one through the addition of many new subjects and to a more flexible one through the adoption of the elective system. The findings of psychological and sociological studies have led to attempts to revise curriculums to meet social demands and individual needs. New knowledge about learning and about

¹ FULLER, *op. cit.*, pp. 151, 153, 154.

² Unpublished 3-year follow-up report of Miami Senior High School, Miami, Fla., 1941.

adolescence has induced improved teaching. There have also been changes in school procedures; but, in the main, changes actually put into practice have been far short of changes advocated in theory. Tradition and custom often prove stronger than philosophy. "Mental disciplinists, classical humanists, culturists, and scholastic specialists" are still able to preserve much of the old order in education.¹

THE PROBLEMS OF YOUTH WERE THE UNACHIEVED OBJECTIVES OF SCHOOLS

Because since the beginning of the century educational problems had been the subject of almost continuous study on the part of special commissions and because great publicity had been given to the educational advances made in a few progressive schools, the American people, and educators in particular, were startled by the findings of the American Youth Commission, the Regents' Inquiry, and other organizations, which during the thirties studied the problems of youth. The reports showed beyond any doubt that high-school education had neither changed nor improved enough.

Many youth were found to be handicapped by a lack of education or by one inadequate to their needs. In 1918 it had been formally stated by one commission that high schools should seek to provide education for all youth,² not, as stated in 1892, for only the selected few. Nevertheless, the youth studies of the thirties showed that high schools were still selective, that slow-learning youth and those of low socioeconomic status were finding it difficult to get their fair share of high-school education. Children of low-income families were not having an opportunity to graduate from high school equal to that had by children of high-income families even though they might be of ability equal to or superior to that of the latter. A survey of one high school showed that it had high scholastic standards. The survey also showed that it had a relatively low percentage of the adolescent

¹ North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, *op. cit.*, p. 58.

² Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1918), 32 pp.

group beyond the age set for compulsory school attendance.¹ Students with intelligence quotients below 100 generally became discouraged and dropped out.

Other studies showed that, despite the vast amount of new information about adolescents and their needs, many teachers still knew subjects better than adolescents; that they were making mastery of subject matter the primary objective of the classroom and were not accepting health, worthy home membership, vocations, civic education, worthy use of leisure time, and ethical character as classroom objectives. And it was in these areas that youth were waging their major battles. It was here that the schools seemed to have served them least well because, according to the investigators, youth did not know how to make good use of leisure time; were not prepared for their roles in community and family life; did not always appreciate either the privileges or the responsibilities of citizenship; and were very much concerned with problems of health, of personal development, of social behavior, of interpersonal relations, of religion, and of morals.

Because unemployment was the outstanding problem of the depression years, many studies were focused on the occupational needs of youth. Soon the disconcerting issues of the Second World War made the nation more keenly aware of youth's non-vocational problems and of their need for assistance with them. Medical surveys showed that too many youth were incipient neurotics and psychotics. When approximately 90 per cent of a group of one million men rejected for military service were found to be mentally or physically unfit,² the health of youth became a national concern. It could no longer be considered solely an individual matter.

The increased moral unrest and high incidence of crime among teen-age youth showed that good citizenship and ethical character continued to be unachieved objectives. During the depression years some persons rationalized that it was the unemployment conditions of too much spare time and too little spending money that made leisure time a serious youth problem. But the full employment and the abundance of money of the war years

¹ G. R. JOHNSON, "Failures of High School Students in St. Louis," *American School Board Journal*, 91:44, November, 1935.

² *Youth and the Future* (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1942), p. 189.

did not reduce the seriousness of this problem. Leisure time and money were not always spent in purposeful and constructive activities but were frequently spent in pastimes that proved tragically destructive.

IN SEARCH OF A NEW KIND OF EDUCATION

No group was more shocked by the revelations of the youth studies than were the educators. Youth's problems, they realized, were social problems; hence the schools, as society's special agency for youth, must assume responsibility for helping youth to meet these problems successfully. They also recognized that this required a new kind of education and that to the objectives represented by the *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*¹ must be added new ones: induction of students into broader social responsibility; discovery of their interests, aptitudes, and capacities; guidance into desirable social relationships; and optimum personality development.

To determine how these objectives could be attained, more committees were organized and new commissions appointed; experimental studies were established; new surveys and other research investigations were undertaken. On the bases of the findings curriculums were reorganized, and school life was further enriched. The educators saw, however, that this was not enough. Reorganizing the educational program by providing new types of curriculums, by destroying subject-matter lines, by providing "life units," by offering a variety of school experiences, and by "child centering" the school was not held sufficient for securing the new kind of education needed to prepare youth for life in a modern democracy. They saw that something else was essential. They called that something by various names. Most frequently they termed it "personnel work" or "guidance."

Some schools had already discovered the value of personnel work for assisting some students with certain problems. Having seen the value of the work demonstrated, educators were anxious to see it used in helping all youth with all their problems. As one educator expressed it:

The keystone of a modern school for youth is guidance—guidance not only in matters pertaining to vocation and formal schooling, but in all

¹ *Op. cit.*

the matters that perplex the minds and hearts of youth—problems of religion, problems of sex and love, social problems, relationships with parents, and financial problems.¹

And as their final conclusion two investigators reported:

Our findings do indicate a need for "guidance" in *the broadest use of that term*.²

"Guidance" quickly became the educational watchword. High-school administrators knew that, to have good schools, they must have personnel work; but they were not always certain as to what the work was or how they were to do it. To supply the answers, many books and articles were written on the subject; investigations were made of personnel programs in operation, good and bad; and descriptive accounts were written of the methods and practices already in use. So great was the demand for information about personnel work that during the 5-year period of 1937-1942 the recognized authorities, almost without exception, contributed to the literature on this subject. New books were written; old ones were revised. But the plans and interpretations offered by these authorities were not always the same or even very similar. A few were in direct opposition to others, and occasionally disputes concerning their correctness became little more than wrangling. The high-school workers found it all very confusing as they tried to unscramble the answers. Bewildered and displeased, some gave up the effort. And some, no doubt, found in the "disagreement of the doctors" justification for continuing to work complacently along the lines of traditional patterns.

The confusion concerning personnel work is helping to delay the time when high schools through an educational program appropriate to the needs of all pupils can claim to be good schools for the good of the country. Lack of agreement regarding the nature, scope, and services of personnel work is producing lack of standards for the training of personnel workers. This, in turn, is causing lack of certification regulations or the formulation of

¹ H. R. DOUGLASS, "The Problems of Youth," *North Central Association Quarterly*, 13:230, October, 1938.

² W. F. DEARBORN and J. W. M. ROTHNEY, *Scholastic, Economic, and Social Backgrounds of Unemployed Youth* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1938), p. 141. Italics not in the original.

inadequate and unsatisfactory requirements. Without control through certification, personnel work is being performed inadequately in many high schools by untrained workers who have vague and confused ideas about what they are doing in the name of personnel work. Today personnel work, recognized as one of the most important phases of an education based upon the needs of youth, is generally found to be the most poorly performed and, consequently, the least effective phase of high-school education. However, until high-school teachers and administrators can be more definite in their thinking about it, they cannot be expected to be more definite in their performance.

Much has been written on the subject of personnel work by authorities who use different terms, interpret the same terms differently, describe different services, assign the services to different levels of importance, and advocate different methods for their performance. Fortunately, despite much disagreement with respect to terminology, methodology, and points of emphasis, there is also much agreement. For that matter, the more recent literature shows similarities far outweighing differences and even evidence of a definite tendency toward unanimity on the part of the authorities. Nevertheless, the strong continuity and congruity in the various theories cannot be seen; and generalizations cannot be made as long as the many writings are viewed separately. An analytical synthesis and interpretation of this large body of literature is needed in order to help high-school teachers find the right answers. Herein lies the purpose of this book—to make the results of such an analysis available in the hope that it may contribute to the better performance of high-school personnel work.

CHAPTER II

SOME OF THE ANSWERS

In the history of the schools personnel work is a very young, changing thing. In some schools it is still, as described in 1937,¹ little more than a vague idea; but interest in that idea is steadily growing stronger and more widespread. In order to change personnel programs from inconsistent piecework into strong, effective programs adequate to the needs of all pupils, high-school teachers and administrators are trying to become better informed about the new idea. To clear up the fog pervading high-school personnel work today, they are seeking definite answers to such specific questions as "What should it be called?" "What does it mean?" "What does it include?" and "Who should do it?"

WHAT IS IT CALLED?

In different forms and under different names personnel work was introduced into high schools throughout the country during the 1920's. By the middle of the 1930's it was clear that these different forms were really the same or parts of the same thing. It was also clear that, in order to understand each other, to work together successfully, and to gain the understanding and support of principals and teachers, these workers, who were really doing the same thing, should call that thing by the same name. Consequently, we find the literature of this period full of discussion concerning the correct name to be given to the young thing:—"individualized education," "personalized education," "vocational guidance," "vocational and educational guidance," "counseling," or one of many other names. More than 50 different terms were in use.

Some writers saw in this search for a name an opportunity to eliminate confused thinking and inconsistencies in practices through an exactness in terminology. Through the use of terms

¹ S. M. STURTEVANT, "Some Questions Regarding the Developing Guidance Movement," *School Review*, 45:347, May, 1937.

they sought to distinguish personnel work from other areas of education, to separate one aspect of the personnel program from the others, and even to indicate the educational level upon which the work was to be performed. There followed some much-needed contributions to clarity of thinking on the part of personnel workers. In an effort, however, to attain high standards of scientific precision, a few writers made the distinctions so exact that they excluded from personnel work some services urgently needed by high-school pupils. Such fine distinctions are artificial and contribute more to confusion than to clarification.

Perhaps a reaction against the artificial limiting of terms is indicated by the little attention given in the more recent literature to the subject of terms and their meanings. Fewer terms are found in the current literature, and these terms are used similarly by most authors. Of the many terms employed in the earlier writings, two—"personnel work" and "guidance"—have gained common acceptance in the literature of today. The two terms are generally employed interchangeably and are used to designate the total program of personnel services provided at any educational level—elementary, secondary, or college. Special terms, such as "vocational guidance" and "counseling," are used to denote only specific parts of the total personnel program. It is very doubtful that any writer today would assert that one of these special terms is satisfactory for naming the total program or that the services provided in the personnel program should be limited to those indicated by the special term.

On the whole, the term guidance is used more frequently than personnel work. Moreover, it is used to describe the program at all educational levels, whereas the term personnel work is seldom used for the elementary school. For a while the phrase "child development" was considered the proper term to designate the work in the elementary school, but today the word guidance is used far more frequently. At the college level, personnel work has always been and still is the preferred term. Many persons also consider it the preferred term for the high-school level because of certain narrow and undesirable connotations that have become associated with the term guidance.

Circumstances attending the introduction and the development of guidance in high schools have caused certain undesirable mean-

ings to become associated with that term. Because the work was first introduced into many schools in the form of vocational guidance, there are some writers who believe that the term guidance should be reserved for vocational guidance, "its point of origin."¹ These writers, however, do not deny the existence or the importance of other parts of the whole field, designated by them usually as "personnel work" or "individualized education." High-school workers, however, often overlook this latter point and, as a result, regard vocational guidance as the whole or as the most important part of the work. They fail to recognize that the part cannot perform all the functions of the whole or that the most important part at any time must be that part which best contributes to the development and growth of a particular individual. The fact that the important part will vary with individuals is the reason, no doubt, why one writer, who would reserve the term guidance for vocational guidance, suggests that the term individualized education be used to designate the whole.²

In some schools the work was introduced to help in dealing with the "problem child." In such schools guidance is still usually provided primarily for maladjusted students, and the term has a corresponding meaning for the workers in those schools. Personnel services, however, are needed by all pupils, by the well adjusted as well as by the maladjusted. Keeping the normal child normal is just as important in school personnel work as keeping the healthy child healthy is in school health work. If the term guidance has become closely associated with work restricted to the "problem child," the adoption of the term personnel work may aid efforts to extend personnel services to all children.

Some persons look upon guidance as a means of making disagreeable, unruly children pleasant and docile. This mistaken idea is why the word guidance is unacceptable to some writers. Williamson and Darley,³ for example, reject it because of the

¹ H. D. KITSON, "Getting Rid of a Piece of Educational Rubbish," *Teachers College Record*, 36:30-34, October, 1934; "Individualized Education: A Heart to Heart Talk with the Superintendent about Guidance," *Occupations*, 13:410-12, February, 1935.

² *Ibid.*

³ E. G. WILLIAMSON and J. G. DARLEY, *Student Personnel Work* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1937), p. 28, footnote.

"faint aura of sentimentality and Pollyannaism" that clings to it in some schools. Guidance is not something that someone does to a pupil to make him sweet and good. The pupil does not come out of the conference room in a benign state of mind, ready to like everything and to love everybody. But he may come out able to live a little more comfortably with his present supply of loves and hates when the good of the child is the primary consideration in personnel work and all services required for that good—his optimal development—are provided in the program.

It is such unfortunate, narrow interpretations of the word guidance that make many persons believe it a less desirable term than personnel work for designating a program of services designed to assist all pupils in all life-adjustment areas. This was the reason why one state association of high-school principals formally adopted the term personnel work.¹ The principals declared the term guidance inadequate because it was interpreted by some principals and some teachers as referring only to the corrective and remedial phases of the personnel program.

WHAT DOES IT MEAN?

Personnel work, probably the most frequently defined part of education, is still for many high-school teachers the undefined part of the program. When teachers turn to the literature to learn the answer to their question "What is it?" they find almost as many different definitions as they find writers. In spite of the fact that almost every authority in the field has tried to give a logical, adequate interpretation of the work, no satisfactory definition has yet been formulated inasmuch that no one definition is generally accepted among the authorities.

Twice during the 1930's all the definitions were carefully classified, summarized, and evaluated.² Each time all were found inadequate and each time for the same reasons—too restrictive or too inclusive, too specific or too broad. Both times a new definition was offered, and these definitions also

¹ D. A. ROTHERMEL and F. G. DAVIS, "Pupil Personnel Work in the Schools of Pennsylvania," *Pennsylvania School Journal*, 88:39, October, 1939.

² R. C. CLOTHIER, "College Personnel Principles and Functions," *Personnel Journal*, 10:9-17, June, 1931; W. H. COWLEY, "The Nature of Student Personnel Work," *Educational Record*, 17:198-226, April, 1936.

were promptly rejected by other critics for similar reasons. These critical summaries were made in order to reduce confusion by securing common understanding through agreement with respect to definition. Instead of clarification, however, the result was increased confusion because of increased disagreement.

One definition, although rejected by some authorities because too inclusive, deserves attention. Offered in 1931 by a committee of the American College Personnel Association, the definition reads:

Personnel work in a college or university is the systematic bringing to bear on the individual student all those influences, of whatever nature, which will stimulate him and assist him, through his own efforts, to develop in body, mind, and character to the limit of his individual capacity for growth, and helping him to apply his powers so developed most effectively to the work of the world.¹

This definition is important because it has been accepted by two authorities² and because several recent books on high-school personnel work are clearly based upon its interpretation,³ although acceptance of the definition is not expressed.

The absence of formal definitive statements in some recent books is striking and perhaps significant.⁴ One gets the impression of weary workers, exhausted by the struggle for a suitable definition, turning back to pick up one discarded earlier. They apparently have found nothing better.

¹ CLOTHIER, *op. cit.*, p. 10. Passage italicized in the original.

² RUTH STRANG, *Behavior and Background of Students in College and Secondary School* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1937), p. ix; *The Role of the Teacher in Personnel Work*, New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935), rev. ed., pp 14-15; E. G. WILLIAMSON, "The Coordination of Personnel Services in Schools," *Educational Record*, 23:12-13, January, 1942.

³ P. W. L. COX and J. C. DUFF, *Guidance by the Classroom Teacher* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1941), 535 pp.; C. E. GERMANE and E. G. GERMANE, *Personnel Work in High School* (New York: Silver Burdett Company, 1941), 599 pp.; S. A. HAMRIN and C. E. ERICKSON, *Guidance in the Secondary School* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1939), 465 pp.; D. W. LEFEVER, A. M. TURRELL, and H. J. WEITZEL, *Principles and Techniques of Guidance* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1941), 522 pp.

⁴ Of the books cited in the preceding footnote, only the one by Hamrin and Erickson offers what may be described as a formal definition of guidance or personnel work.

An analysis of the many definitions, given formally or through general interpretation, shows only one element common to all: personnel work contributes to the student's personal development. Most writers offer some general statement concerning how the personnel worker is to make this contribution. And around these statements revolve some of the most acrimonious disputes found in the literature. "Not workable," "too vague," "prescription not guidance," "teaching not personnel work" are some of the invectives hurled by writers of some statements against statements written by others.

High-school teachers find it difficult to make practical use of these general statements concerning personnel services because the statements vary sufficiently to become perplexing. Moreover, all are so broad that they lack the specificity essential to usefulness. But, considered together, they have a usefulness not had separately. The combined statements help the personnel worker to see that his task is a comprehensive and intricate one and that, to avoid being handicapped in it by partial purposes or a limited point of view, he should consider the teachings of more than one authority.

There are high-school teachers who tend to adopt and to adhere forever after to the theory presented in the first, sometimes only, book read on the subject or to the one presented by some much-admired college or university professor. Placing reverential emphasis, however, upon the teachings of one authority is less likely to contribute to professional knowledge and growth than is the stimulating experience of deliberately seeking knowledge of many points of view.

According to the authors of some recent books on high-school personnel work, the personnel worker should assist the student to attain the desired personal development

1. By "dealing with a number of the problems of youth that are of such a nature as to require the assistance of personnel workers" (Williamson and Hahn).¹

2. By "(1) helping youth to recognize and to understand more adequately their many baffling problems, and (2) helping youth to discover their several aptitudes, interests, and oppor-

¹ E. G. WILLIAMSON and M. E. HAHN, *Introduction to High School Counseling* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1940), p. 48.

tunities which, if properly developed, will assist them in the solution of their problems" (Germane and Germane).¹

3. By helping the student "to adjust to his present problems and to plan wisely for his future activities" (Paterson, Schneider, and Williamson).²

4. By bringing each "student into the educational environment . . . in such a manner that he will derive from this environment the maximum of the desired personal development" (Myers).³

5. By "helping an individual to trace his development, appraise its course, and obtain from his environment the experiences, the information, and counsel necessary to fulfill his potentialities" (Strang).⁴

6. By "helping the pupil to become adjusted to his present situation and to plan his future in line with his interests, abilities, and social needs" (Hamrin and Erickson).⁵

7. By attempting "to achieve a synthesis between the student's aspirations, his potentialities, and his opportunities" (Smith and Roos).⁶

8. By furnishing "assistance in self-discovery together with counsel on the possible alternatives" (Brewer).⁷

9. By "helping children to set up *for themselves* objectives that are *for them dynamic*, and which the teacher believes to be reasonable and worth while" (Cox and Duff).⁸

One might easily be tempted to build a definition on the basis of these nine statements by different authorities. It seems such a neat solution to the definition problem. But the idea is not feasible because the definition would undoubtedly be declared only "partly acceptable." Nevertheless, a combination of the

¹ GERMANE and GERMANE, *op. cit.*, p. 28.

² D. G. PATERSON, G. G. SCHNEIDLER, and E. G. WILLIAMSON, *Student Guidance Techniques* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1938), p. 1.

³ G. E. MYERS, *Principles and Techniques of Vocational Guidance* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1941), pp. 54-55.

⁴ RUTH STRANG, *Pupil Personnel and Guidance* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940), p. 25.

⁵ HAMRIN and ERICKSON, *op. cit.*, pp. 1-2.

⁶ C. M. SMITH and M. M. ROOS, *A Guide to Guidance* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1941), p. 1.

⁷ J. M. BREWER, *History of Vocational Guidance* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1942), pp. 14-15.

⁸ COX and DUFF, *op. cit.*, p. 76. Italics in the original.

statements may help the high-school worker to see that personnel work has for its primary objective the optimum personal development of the pupil and that, to aid the pupil in attaining this objective, the worker must assist him to understand himself and his problems (1, 2, 5, 8), to make good use of his personal and environmental resources (2, 4, 5, 7), and to choose and to plan wisely (3, 6, 7, 8, 9) in order that he may deal successfully with his problems and make satisfactory adjustments now and later (3, 6, 7).

WHAT DOES IT INCLUDE?

Much of the confusion resulting from disagreement over definitions has been caused by demands for scientific precision through exact limiting expressions. Writers express wholly different points of view concerning the limits to be set. Some, who hold a narrow conception of personnel work, limit the program to vocational and educational guidance or, accepting the inclusion of other areas, place the emphasis, and at times exclusively, upon the educational and vocational. Some, who stress the optimum development of the whole person and the unity of personality, believe that the scope of the work and the significance of any one part can be determined only by the nature of the needs and problems presented by individual pupils. The latter is the point of view that predominates in the literature today.

A writer's conception with respect to the scope of personnel work is indicated by the adjustment or problem areas in which, he believes, the pupil should receive assistance through guidance as well as through instruction. Authorities warn that problems overlap and cannot be dealt with independently, but for convenience of treatment most writers do classify problems according to the adjustment needs of students. A comparison of the classifications given in the literature of the past 10 years shows that all writers include vocational, educational, and recreational guidance; that almost all include social, civic, and health guidance; and that next in order, but listed much less frequently, is the type variously described as moral, religious, character, and ethical guidance. More attention is given in recent than in earlier publications to problems of mental health, social guidance, and problems of family relationships.

The study of the literature shows a definite trend toward

acceptance of a broad scope for high-school personnel work. Personnel workers, in general, are beginning to recognize that the educational program must be as broad as life itself and that in personnel work no adjustment problem of contemporary life can be ignored. This expansion of concepts harmonizes with the progress being made through other areas, such as curriculum, toward a socially sound education. But the trend away from a conception of personnel work limited to or focused upon vocational and educational guidance does not signify a decreased appreciation of the importance of these areas. It is rather a recognition that, if the work is to deal successfully with the needs and problems of youth, it must include other important phases of life adjustment in addition to the educational and vocational.

Among the authors of recent books on high-school personnel work, Myers alone tries to limit the work to a few specific areas. Through definition Myers excludes civic, health, social, and moral guidance because they do not offer "differences among possible courses of action open to the individual."¹ Whether these problems fall within or without an imaginary line may not yet be determined, but that they do fall perennially upon youth is already well established. Youth know no easy way to throw these problems off. They do not follow the same course of action in dealing with them. Nor do they always see that the goals are, or should be, the same for all—good citizenship, good health, social competence, and ethical character.

In Maryland, youth went to the polls to cast their vote for the direction of society for "just the thrill of it," "to kill time," or because they were "dragged up there" by the family or "just went with the rest of the boys."² In North Carolina, youth failed in such simple health problems as taking care of teeth and getting enough sleep.³ In the nation at large the ugly situation of juvenile delinquency supplies ample proof of youth's crying need for social and moral guidance. In New Jersey, youth built its case against society around six problems, of which three were

¹ MYERS, *op. cit.*, p. 36.

² HOWARD M. BELL, *Youth Tell Their Story* (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1938), pp. 230-31.

³ G. W. LOVEJOY, *Paths to Maturity* (Chapel Hill, University of North Carolina, 1940), pp. 175-206.

marriage, friendships, and the moral code.¹ And yet Myers rejects also "personal relations guidance" and "marital guidance," not because they do not fall within the limits set for personnel work (he concedes that much needs to be done to help youth in these matters), but because each kind of guidance must be submitted to careful examination before being accepted into the personnel program.²

The time spent, however, in such examination should be limited. The founder of vocational guidance—to Myers the most acceptable kind of guidance—called attention to the importance of this kind of guidance in the opening sentence of his book: "No step in life, unless it may be the choice of a husband or a wife, is more important than the choice of a vocation."³ Since that time, 1908, personnel workers have had sufficient time to consider and to accept this kind of guidance. Instead, they continue, as one writer expresses it,⁴ to take their cue from romantic literature, assuming that young people will marry and live happily ever after without the school's providing information and guidance toward this coveted goal. And, along with all this, it should be remembered that the frequency with which inability to get along with others is cited as a cause of job separation as well as a reason for broken homes fully justifies youth's assertion that in school they "should learn how to get along with people."⁵

We occasionally laugh at the *mañana* habits of our South American neighbors, failing to recognize that our own are often little better. The problems of youth have been carefully and thoroughly investigated. The results show clearly that youth do have many problems, including those of interpersonal relations, health, morals, and social and civic behavior. More than that, the spontaneous comments of the interviewees show that youth long for help with their problems, for expert help, not the

¹ W. D. TOWNER, "The Case of Youth vs. Society," *Journal of Social Hygiene*, 21:331-345, December, 1935.

² MYERS, *op. cit.*, p. 35.

³ FRANK PARSONS, *Choosing a Vocation* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1909), p. 3.

⁴ ESTHER LLOYD-JONES and RUTH FEDDER, *Coming of Age* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1941), p. 141.

⁵ R. G. FULLER, *A Study of Youth Needs and Services in Muncie, Indiana* (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1938), p. 152.

quasi variety. And what has been done in the country that places such a high premium upon immediate and forceful action that it can afford to snicker at its less aggressive neighbors? Reports have been written. Reports have been published. Reports have been read. Protests have been uttered in varying degrees of shrillness. Relatively speaking, little else has been done. The home has placed the blame upon the school; the school has pointed the finger of shame at the home; and both agree that the church has fallen down on its job. In this way the country escapes facing squarely its problem with regard to youth's problems. Today its youth are still looking to tomorrow for the help promised yesterday. Schools willing to accept the challenge offered in this situation will provide personnel programs at least sufficiently broad in scope to include those areas named by the National Education Association in its proposals for the "school guidance program" in postwar education¹—physical health, mental and emotional health, social and ethical development, and educational and vocational adjustment.

WHO DOES IT?

In the literature, both of and outside the personnel field, many discussions are held concerning the relationship of personnel work to education and of its objectives to those of education. It is difficult, however, to understand why there should be any confusion on these points. Personnel work is but one part of the total educational program; hence its objectives are logically included in those of education.

More spirited debates are carried on with regard to the relationship between personnel work and the curriculum. If the curriculum is defined as that part of education concerned primarily with instruction, personnel work and the curriculum are not the same. They are two distinct aspects of the total program, but they are not by any manner of means dichotomous. Some curriculum-guidance disputes are strongly reminiscent of some mind-body disputes.

Recently it has become very popular for writers to define the curriculum as all the experiences that pupils have in school. Some wisely add "under the direction of the school." If this

¹ National Education Association, "Proposals for Public Education in Postwar America," *Research Bulletin*, 22:47, April, 1944.

is the correct definition for curriculum, then the relationship of personnel work to the curriculum is the same as that to education; for the term curriculum is being made synonymous to education. Some writers, however, protest this expansion of the term. From their experiences with other inflated words they know that terms which are made to mean everything often mean nothing. Personnel workers have had to make similar protests against the synonymous use of the words "education" and "guidance." Many agree with Lefever that "until it is felt that the services of the guidance specialists can be dispensed with, the interchanging of the words guidance and education will probably contribute far more to good teaching than to improved guidance."¹

The most heated discussions center in the question "Who should perform the personnel functions?" Three points of view are expressed in the literature: (1) the class teacher should provide all personnel services; (2) personnel work is primarily the function of the specialist, with the teachers performing only minor supplementary functions; (3) there are personnel services to be performed by every staff member, but every staff member is not qualified to perform every personnel service. According to this last point of view, there are levels of personnel work of varying degrees of complexity. Certain services can be performed by every teacher; certain services should be performed only by the teachers selected and trained for them; and certain services should be performed only by the specialists.

The second point of view—personnel work is the function of the specialist—is held by only a few authorities and is held with respect to college, not high-school, personnel work. The scarcity of specialists and the tremendous expense of any plan based on this point of view make it unlikely that many schools will consider adopting it.

The first point of view represents an ideal situation, an educational Utopia, and, like all other Utopias, ideally desirable but not practicable. Many arguments are advanced in support of this perfect plan: To separate instructional and guidance work is to deny the whole-child concept. Three-fourths of our high schools are too small to be able to afford the services of the guidance specialist. In the small high school the teacher knows the child so well that the specialized personnel worker is not needed.

¹ LEFEVER, TURRELL, and WEITZEL, *op. cit.*, p. 22.

In any high school, large or small, the teacher is the school person most intimately conversant with the pupil and hence should be charged with his guidance as well as with his instruction. Guidance specialists have made important contributions to educational reform; but these workers are no longer needed because in the new curriculum plans aims are not confined to subject fields but embrace other objectives, including those of personnel work.

These arguments do sound convincing, and the picture painted of a school in which all lines are erased between guidance and instruction is a lovely one. One cannot, however, consider the situation as it actually exists in the high schools today and fail to see that the picture is also an extreme one. And, musing over this picture of a perfect guidance situation, one is again impressed with the profoundness of Samuel Butler's statement: "Extremes are alone logical, and they are always absurd, the mean is alone practicable and it is always illogical."¹

To dream of an ideal situation in which the guidance specialist is not provided because not needed is only to dream. Therefore, it is the third point of view that the schools must act upon if they wish to provide strong, effective personnel programs. Any plan based on this point of view is not a perfect scheme; for it is the mean, the practicable point of view. And it is such a practical, perfectible rather than a perfect, idealistic plan that is advocated by the Educational Policies Commission and the Research Division of the National Education Association in their proposals for postwar education in America.² In these proposals both the class teacher and the guidance specialist are given important roles in the program of personnel work. The specialist is there to coordinate the work, to implement new theories, and to supplement the services of the class teacher. This is the desired situation toward which we are working, a situation in which students find the services of specialists available, in which they are served by good teachers who in certain guidance areas are also good personnel workers. It is, however, a situation that

¹ Quoted in I. L. Kandel, "Educational Utopias," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 235:47, September, 1944.

² Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1944), 421 pp.; National Education Association, *op. cit.*, pp. 47-48.

we cannot yet claim to have reached. Nor is this situation likely to exist for many more years because only a very small proportion of the high-school teachers today have received through preservice or inservice education the training needed. And, unfortunately, only a limited number of teacher-training institutions are today giving tomorrow's teachers the training they need in student personnel work.

One reason why personnel work does not yet approximate in practice what the authorities preach and what high schools wish it to be is that schools have accepted the point of view that teachers should be the personnel workers without giving their teachers the necessary training and the assistance of personnel specialists. Teachers do not become effective counselors upon administrative decree. Many who accept the new duties do not know how to perform them. Many are not willing to accept them because they believe that such duties interfere with their primary function—the intellectual conditioning of the child. It was the teacher's concern for intellectual growth to the point of exclusion or neglect of other phases of development that first led to the introduction of personnel work into the schools. This condition is still prevalent and is seriously interfering with efforts to provide high-school programs that are good for all youth. Douglass uttered a sharp protest against this situation when he wrote:

Until the great mass of subject-bound, child-blind, society-ignorant secondary school and college teachers have passed on, and new plans of teacher education are giving us a new type of teacher, we can expect the change that will take place in the majority of schools to fall far short of meeting the needs of non-school youth of today.¹

Some writers believe that the small size of the great majority of high schools makes the teacher-the-personnel-worker plan the only practical one. It is true that most small schools cannot afford to have specialists on their staff, but it is no less true that they cannot afford to be without the services of the specialists. In order that teacher-counselors may have the expert assistance and new type of education needed, the services of the specialists should be made available to all schools by county or state departments of education.

¹ H. R. DOUGLASS, "The Problems of Youth," *North Central Association Quarterly*, 13:226, October, 1938.

Nor can it be assumed that the very fact of small size makes special provision for personnel work unnecessary in such schools. Wood pointed out some years ago the dangers involved in depending upon the logical assumption that the small size of a school assures adequate knowledge of and provision for the needs of students.¹ The fallacy of the assumption is fully exposed in the reports of several investigations of personnel work in small high schools. The reports show that in the small schools personnel work is in a serious state of confusion and that rural youth are suffering from an inequality of opportunity for personnel services as great as the inequality of their opportunity for certain other educational advantages.²

More speedy progress toward the desired ideal situation in which every teacher has an important role in personnel work is being made possible by the work in curriculum revision. In the new curriculum plans, aims are formulated that are not confined to subject fields but are defined in terms of social functionalism and of the optimum development of the individual. More unified experiences are being provided with a wider variety of and greater continuity of learning experiences. Increased attention is being given to the development of the attitudes and skills considered essential for democratic living. And development in self-direction is being made possible through greater participation by pupils in planning and evaluating their experiences. In brief, the principal objective in the new curriculum is to produce the kind of behavior changes needed in meeting both individual needs and social demands.

The socializing of the high schools has not moved so fast that all teachers may now be considered personnel workers. Many teachers continue to be more subject- than pupil-conscious. And, in spite of the tremendous amount of work that has been done in curriculum revision, the great majority of high schools are still without any special provision for individual differences.

¹ B. D. WOOD, "The Major Strategy of Guidance," *Educational Record*, 15:419-44, October, 1934.

² E. DE S. BRUNNER, IRVING LORGE, and R. G. PRICE, "Vocational Guidance in Village High Schools," *Teachers College Record*, 39:218-29, December, 1937; A. E. JONES, "Practices in Vocational Guidance in Secondary Schools," *California Schools*, 11:3-12, January, 1940; H. C. KOCH, "The Status of Guidance in the Small High School," *School and Society*, 50:94-96, July 15, 1939.

When the time does finally come when all teachers will be as well trained and as much concerned for the guidance as for the instruction of their pupils, there will still be services needed to supplement and to strengthen the work of the teacher-counselors. No matter how much the curriculum may be improved, there will always be additional services possible to help young people to attain a higher degree of social usefulness and personal happiness. As in the past, so in the future, specialized personnel workers will have a distinct purpose in seeking to discover, to supply, and to improve these services.

THE PERSONNEL POINT OF VIEW

Slowly and steadily personnel work is moving from a state of general confusion to one of harmony and order. The period of confusion is easily understood. During its formative stages personnel work was hampered by a too rapid development of mechanical devices and by an overemphasis upon the easily administered aspects. Its workers held different points of view because they differed widely with respect to experience and training, problems and resources, scope of responsibility, and contacts with other phases of education. Under such conditions confusion and disagreement can always be expected. The surprising thing, therefore, is not that there has been so much confusion but rather that the confusion has been so greatly and so quickly reduced. This situation, too, can be easily explained. The steady converging toward agreement on such important points as scope, objectives, and services is undoubtedly due to the fact that personnel workers have always agreed concerning the basic philosophy of their work. There is even general agreement that this phase of the work should be called the "personnel point of view."

An analysis of several hundred writings results in the formulation of ten fundamental principles, accepted in the personnel point of view by most authorities, if not all. Some readers may protest that they are also the principles of good teaching. Personnel workers will agree, knowing that the "philosophy behind their work . . . is as old as education itself."¹ These principles are

¹ American Council on Education, *The Student Personnel Point of View* (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1937), p. 2.

also found among the principles of democracy. They are accepted by parents and by social workers as well as by teachers and by personnel workers. And some are accepted as religious principles by many persons. Fortunately, principles and objectives and services are not copyrightable. They do not belong exclusively to any one group.

The personnel point of view is based upon these principles:

1. Personnel work is concerned with the student as an individual. This principle is expressed in almost every definition of personnel work. More recently, statements of this principle have been revised to emphasize the importance of work with the individual as a member of the group. For example, Hamrin and Erickson state that "the focus must be on the individual pupil, both now and later, and always in a social human setting."¹

2. Individual differences in student needs, abilities, and interests must be recognized and provided for as far as possible by the school.

3. Personnel work is concerned with the whole student.

4. Personnel services are for all students, not for the maladjusted student alone. To serve all students, the work must be preventive, diagnostic, remedial, and developmental.

5. Personnel work is concerned largely with choices to be made and with adjustments in terms of the individual.

6. Personnel work implies counsel but not compulsion.

7. Personnel work seeks to assist the individual to become progressively more able to help himself.

8. Personnel work is a gradual and continuous process. The belief is rapidly growing stronger that this process should continue beyond the school years, that personnel services should be made available to the individual as long as he may need them.

9. Personnel workers need professional knowledge and training in the use of specialized techniques for a more adequate understanding of individual students.

10. Organization is needed to make personnel work effective.

Other principles are stated by some authors just as forcefully as are these ten. Because they are not generally accepted by other authorities, they are not included in this list.

¹ HAMRIN and ERICKSON, *op. cit.*, p. 16.

This general agreement of the authorities with regard to principles is extremely important. In any field of work selection and organization of functions or services must be in terms of basic philosophy. The fact that the literature shows a definite trend toward general acceptance of broad concepts in keeping with the personnel point of view is indeed a favorable omen for personnel work.

CHAPTER III

THE INFLUENCE OF SOME CONTRIBUTING FORCES

A popular lay conception of student personnel work is that it is no more than personalized education in the form of an attitude, of a point of view, or of good pupil-teacher relationship. In this form high schools have always had personnel work because high schools have always had good teachers. Personnel work based on this conception, however, is inadequate because it is too dependent upon the inclination and ability of individual teachers to give it.

In the form of systematic, organized efforts to provide personnel services for every student, personnel work is one of the educational innovations of this century. By the second decade high schools were beginning to awaken to the fact that personnel work could contribute so effectively to social and human values that it could not be left to the whim of any teacher. Yet the coming of personnel work into the schools has not always been the result of the schools' discovering the need for it through a study of pupils and their needs and of school programs in relation to these needs. The work has often been accepted by the schools, and at times reluctantly, because of pressures brought to bear upon them by forces originating in movements outside the schools. Early in the century certain movements, philanthropic and scientific, concerned with the needs and problems of youth, brought these needs to the attention of the schools so forcefully that the schools could no longer ignore them but had to assume some responsibility for dealing with them. These movements—vocational guidance, the measurement movement, mental hygiene, social work, and the child-guidance clinics—have been and still are strongly influencing factors in the development of student personnel work.

These five movements have been the source of some valuable contributions to personnel work. They have also been a source

of some confusion. Certain narrow conceptions about high-school personnel work are largely the result of failure on the part of personnel workers to show the proper amount of critical acceptance and resistance to the influence of the contributing movements. Workers trained in or closely associated with one movement often become so imbued with its point of view that they are unable or unwilling to consider any other. Undue emphasis upon the contributions of one movement has frequently led to the neglect of others. Consequently, we find that in some high schools personnel work means testing. In others it may mean major attention to vocational guidance. And in others the personnel worker is only a teacher with the mental-hygiene point of view.

If personnel workers have not made good use of the contributions of these five movements, it is they who are to blame, not the contributors. Many lopsided, incomplete personnel programs are the result of failure on the part of personnel work to absorb and to integrate the contributions into its own pattern of work instead of adapting itself to the many patterns presented by others. Personnel work can and should make good use of these contributions by directing them to its own ends rather than to the ends respectively approved by other forces. Only in this way can it build a clearly structured program resulting in its own definite, easily perceived contribution to education. It is the failure to do so which has produced some of the crazy-quilt programs found in many high schools today—programs made up of a little of this and a little of that or more often of much of this and none of that with little regard for the relative values of this and that. Such programs are pitifully inadequate for meeting the needs of modern youth.

Moreover, the influence exerted unduly by particular movements has produced confusion in another area of personnel work—certification. The certification requirements that have been formulated in a few states tend to place too exclusive emphasis upon testing and upon vocational guidance. They fail to ensure that the personnel worker will have the skills; the understanding of human relations, of personal and social development, of group methods; and the other knowledge needed in order that he may be qualified to assist the student in achieving optimum personal development.

SIMILAR PATTERNS OF DEVELOPMENT

To appreciate fully the contributions of the antecedent movements, it is necessary to know something about their development. While it is not possible to deal with the subject here, it is important to note that in its development high-school personnel work shows a pattern very similar to that found in the development of the other movements.

All six movements—personnel work and its antecedents—have drawn from the same contributing fields of knowledge: physiology, biology, psychology, sociology, anthropology, medicine, and psychiatry. Knowledge from all these interrelated fields has been used by each movement in work directed toward the same general purpose—to help the individual to deal with his problems. In each field this work has often developed independently in different institutions and often in a manner completely unrelated to the developments in other institutions. Consequently, each movement has had to contend with problems produced by diversity of practice. The progress of each has been stimulated by conflict and obstructed by confusion.

The general pattern of development for each of these movements is one of expansion. In each field there has been an expansion from work with the problem case to work with all cases, the well adjusted as well as the maladjusted. There has been a shifting of emphasis from correction and from remedial work to prevention and to developmental work. And there has been growth from concern for the satisfactory adjustment of the individual in certain specific areas of his life to a concern for the whole life adjustment of the individual in all his relationships to himself, to others, and to his environment. In some fields there has even been growth to a concern for changing the social order to meet the needs of individuals.

It is not surprising that six movements with a common concern should show so much similarity in their development. As they move toward similar objectives, the progress of one will inevitably affect developments in the others.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

The two outstanding contributions of vocational guidance to personnel work have been organized guidance within the schools

to secure satisfactory vocational adjustment of youth and an emphasis upon provision or, in some cases, better provision for systematic counseling as a regular school service.

It was as vocational guidance that personnel work first entered many high schools.¹ In helping the pupils to achieve satisfactory occupational adjustment, many schools soon became aware of other adjustment problems of pupils and of the need for services helpful in dealing with these other problems—emotional, social, recreational, health, and the like. As the vocational-guidance movement grew stronger under the watchful care of the National Vocational Guidance Association, personnel work also gained strength. The vocational-guidance expert cautioned that it was the whole boy or the whole girl who would take the job and that this whole person could lose the job because of such inadequacies as lack of personal or social confidence as well as because of lack of occupational knowledge or skill. And so increased attention to the vocational needs usually led to increased attention to the non-vocational. The procedures and techniques that proved useful for dealing with the first were early adopted for use in dealing with the second.

The contribution of counseling came to the schools at a time when it was very much needed to offset the weaknesses in school programs produced by mass-instruction methods. The recognition of the importance of the individual cannot be credited to vocational guidance. But in basing its program upon work with the individual; upon efforts to discover his interests, needs, and abilities; and upon efforts to secure a school program appropriate to these needs and interests, vocational guidance did help to bring about increased recognition of the significance of individual differences. In counseling it found a useful tool for dealing with them. Counseling helped the high-school teachers to see that their pupils had individual needs as well as common needs. In this way vocational guidance worked with other forces to shift the focus from the subject to the individual student.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE MEASUREMENT MOVEMENT

The measurement movement has made important contributions to personnel work through its emphasis upon the fact of

¹ For the history of this movement see John M. Brewer, *History of Vocational Guidance* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1942), 344 pp.

individual differences and through provision of practical analytical tools for studying these differences.

It is often stated that the psychology of individual differences is only the acknowledgment by science and education of an ageold philosophical insight. And this is true, but in the older philosophies individual differences were significant only insofar as they coincided with group interests. The significance of individual differences for determining the outcome of an educational program or of a procedure for the sake of the individual is the special product of the scientific study of human nature. Before intelligence tests were developed, neither the meaning nor the extent of individual differences was taken seriously by many educators.

The recognition of the significance of individual differences is one of the principal tenets of the personnel point of view. It is a fundamental principle of personnel work in a democracy. If here, as in certain European countries, the primary function of personnel work were selection, individual differences would continue to receive attention only to the extent that they relate to group interests. But in a democracy the primary function is to secure the recognition of and provision for individual needs, abilities, and interests not in order that pupils may serve as more useful means to the ends of the state but in order to secure the optimum development of the individual. In this country the individual is still the primary end of education. On this point our various philosophies of education are in complete agreement.

The measurement movement has given personnel work valuable analytical tools and techniques. With the data derived from these instruments, the personnel worker can make a much better approach to the student's needs than is possible without them. But these tools, and tests in particular, are probably the most abused of all the contributions. Personnel workers do not always make the best use of these instruments for the most important purposes. Nor do they always use the instruments correctly or evaluate the data properly. This occasional misuse of tests is not, however, a sin peculiar to personnel workers. It is a common failing of educators in general.

The history of the use of tests in personnel work is very much the same as that of testing in education as a whole. A period of preliminary exploration was followed by one of rapid growth with greatly exaggerated expectations of the value of tests and with

uncritical acceptance of test results. Then came a period of reaction against all tests with a tendency to discount their value entirely. The present period, for the most part, is one of general acceptance of modest but substantial contributions from tests. A more wholesome, critical attitude toward measurement has resulted in a more critical use of tests and a more sensible and intelligent interpretation of the findings.

Today high-school personnel workers have a rich supply of tests from which to draw. They find a number of reliable standardized intelligence and educational-achievement tests useful for discovering exceptional pupils, the slow learner and the gifted; for appraising a pupil's chance at success in a college, in a particular course, or in a job at a particular occupational level, but not in a particular job; for identifying a pupil's special abilities; for diagnosing his disabilities in learning; for appraising his progress; for comparing his present performance with that of other pupils and, more important, with his own past performance; and for determining the contents of a course in accordance with his particular needs.

Tests are also available to the high-school counselor for judging mechanical, clerical, musical, and art aptitudes and for measuring aptitude in particular school subjects and in some occupations. Like tests of general intelligence, however, these tests show what a student can do rather than what he will do. Consequently, the counselor must also know the pupil's personality characteristics, which indicate how well he will use his abilities, general or specific.

To study the pupil's personality, the counselor will rely less upon the test technique than upon such procedures as descriptive ratings, anecdotal records, observation, the case study, and, most important, a synthesis of data from a number of sources. Personality tests are of doubtful value if they are given "to learn a pupil's score" with respect to a particular trait or a general personality pattern. Because scores are dependent upon a student's interpretation of items, upon his understanding of himself, upon his desire to make a good impression, and upon his willingness to give true answers, interpretation of numerical scores is seldom possible. But even though these tests have few quantitative possibilities, they do have a qualitative value. Observation of the pupil while he is taking the test and analysis of his answers

to different items can contribute to a better understanding and appreciation of his feelings and attitudes toward himself, toward his problems, and toward the persons involved in his problems.

Until recently high-school workers could make little use of vocational-interest questionnaires because the forms in use were not suitable for boys and girls under twenty years of age. Now at least three instruments—the Cleeton, the Gentry, and the Kuder inventories¹—have been published and have proved appropriate for use with high-school students. The use of such instruments, however, continues to be more helpful in working with adults than with high-school students because, as Strong has shown,² vocational interests change with age. The changes are greater between the ages of fifteen and twenty-five than after age twenty-five.

The use of vocational-aptitude and interest tests is further limited by the fact that they can give only a general indication of the occupations in which a counselee may succeed. Personnel workers use these instruments, not because they correlate with vocational success—there is little correlation—but because they are useful and, to pupils, interesting aids in dealing with immediate problems of adjustment. They are not used for purposes of prediction but to determine the present status of the pupil and for use in reference to immediate rather than to remote decisions that he must make.

Many parents and some teachers expect far more from tests than can possibly result from the use of any instrument. High-school counselors should share with others their knowledge of the nature and use of these tools. The counselor is unwise who encourages pupils and parents to believe that he can offer specific advice on the basis of tests. He may find exhilarating the feelings derived from being considered important because all-knowing. He may find less enjoyable the feelings experienced on the day of reckoning when he is classed as a charlatan rather than as a sage. Few of his predictions may come true, for tests cannot be

¹ For a review of these instruments see "Counseling Instruments Reviewed," *Occupations*, 21:266-71, November, 1942.

² E. K. STRONG, JR., *Changes of Interests with Age* (Stanford University, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1931), 235 pp.; *Vocational Interests of Men and Women* (Stanford University, Calif: Stanford University Press, 1943), pp. 286-311.

used as fortune-telling devices. Any personnel worker who does not correct misconceptions concerning the magical qualities of tests, who does not point out their limitations as well as the benefits to be derived from their use is helping to make it difficult for other counselors to use tests wisely.

Personnel workers find more helpful than pencil-and-paper tests certain more recent developments of the measurement movement, such as observation techniques, the interview, projective techniques based on psychoanalytic principles, and a new type of measurement generally described by the term "evaluation." Much broader in scope than testing, evaluation emphasizes observation of behavior and the longitudinal study of a pupil to learn how he grows in the various aspects of his total behavior pattern. These techniques have a special value in personnel work because they are focused upon clarifying needs, meanings, processes, and purposes rather than upon appraising general or specific attainments. Furthermore, they make measurement a function of the total situation rather than of a particular part. Such techniques are highly useful to workers concerned with measurement in order to secure improvement in social behavior as well as to test and refine skills, habits, and knowledge.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF MENTAL HYGIENE

Mental hygiene, social work, and the child-guidance clinics have made joint contributions to personnel work. It would be difficult to attempt to separate the contributions of these three forces because their histories are so closely interrelated. Each, however, has stressed certain principles and procedures considered basic in its work and through such emphases is associated more closely with particular contributions than are the other two movements. The emphases that they have made must be counted as their special contributions rather than the principles and procedures that they have developed; for the latter have been taken from other fields, such as law, medicine, or psychiatry.

The mental-hygiene movement has made valuable contributions to personnel work by emphasizing the value of the individual, by helping to create dissatisfaction with existing procedures for meeting his needs, by seeking better education in the principles of mental health, and through its education

program by helping personnel work to bring about a change in the attitude of the teacher toward the child's behavior.

The point is often made that it was the psychologist who helped the teacher to understand the intellectual processes of the child but it was left to the mental hygienist to reveal and interpret the emotional and social implications of these processes. Mental hygienists have labored long and hard to persuade schools to make the child the center of interest and to cease to neglect his emotional life. Concerned for the child's physical, emotional, and social development as well as for the intellectual, they have worked arduously to safeguard him during the maturation process in order to further his development into a well-balanced adult. To do this, they have agitated for improved school practices. They have protested against the lock-step system, rigid routine, too heavily prescribed curriculums, regimentation, strict discipline, and undue emphasis upon examinations, grades, marks, and promotions. They have pointed out the harmful effects of dreary, unattractive school environments and the destructive effects of unhappy, unadjusted teachers.

The efforts of mental hygienists to create dissatisfaction with undesirable school conditions are important. Even more important, however, for personnel work is their positive, constructive program to secure correction of the conditions protested. Criticisms of existing conditions are accompanied by descriptions of desirable school settings and procedures. Techniques used in mental-hygiene clinics are modified and offered for use in the classroom. Teachers, urged to attend all aspects of the child's development, are proffered usable, scientific information on the developmental periods of childhood and adolescence. And a careful, extensive program is maintained throughout the country to educate teachers, parents, and others in the use of the knowledge of human behavior that mental hygiene has made available through scientific investigations.

Education in the principles of mental health is carried out largely through lectures and conferences, through publications, and through efforts to have courses in mental hygiene added to curriculums of colleges and other teacher-training institutions. Certain inservice mental-hygiene courses for teachers come directly from the field of mental hygiene. These inservice courses are especially useful because the teacher receives the training

at the time that he is dealing with the problems being studied. Under the influence of the mental-hygiene movement some colleges are trying to provide a new type of preservice training based on mental-health principles. Such training not only gives the teacher an understanding of human behavior but also aids him with his own problems of adjustment and personality development.

A number of mental-hygiene studies reveal the astonishingly great need for improvement in the mental health of teachers. Some investigations disclose that many teachers are of doubtful value and that some are even detrimental in their influence upon pupils' behavior because they lack insight into reality, emotional stability, or aesthetic sensitivity or because they possess serious unresolved conflicts, strong undesirable prejudices, and deep-rooted value concepts of questionable value.¹ Other studies reveal the tremendous significance for a child's development of the classroom atmosphere and the personal influence of the teacher. They show the value of calm, thoughtful, well-adjusted teachers for helping children to learn how to live as well as how to think. They also show that unhappy, frustrated, maladjusted teachers increase the insecurities and the inadequacies of pupils and leave them even more handicapped for dealing with the problems of living than they were before they became the pupils of such teachers.

The findings of such studies are causing school authorities to realize that it is fully as important to protect and improve the mental health of teachers as it is to protect and improve their physical health. Some school authorities know that the hazards of psychic contagion are fully as serious for the welfare of students as are the hazards involved in being exposed to contagious diseases. Consequently, in some schools definite provision is now being made for assisting teachers with their problems of mental health. Well-trained personnel workers often can be useful to teachers in helping them to see the disruptive effects of situations that grow out of their own emotional problems. Personnel workers can help teachers to find and use appropriate sources of specialized help with these problems.

In the ideal school situation, teachers are concerned with study-

¹ D. A. PRESCOTT, *Emotion and the Educative Process* (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1938), pp. 255-256.

ing and understanding the child as well as with helping him to learn skills and facts. An advance toward this situation is more likely to be found in schools where teachers have knowledge and understanding of the motivation of the child's behavior. The mental-hygiene movement is helping to bring this knowledge to the classroom teacher. The studies made by the National Committee on Mental Hygiene have helped teachers to understand better the degree to which out-of-school experiences and relationships influence the pupils' school behavior. They have made it easier for the teacher to recognize and to consider objectively in his relationship with the pupil the conflicts that originate in the child's relationships with parents, siblings, and others.

Usually teachers who have a knowledge of the principles of mental hygiene readily accept and act on the personnel point of view. Teachers who possess an understanding of human behavior and who have become imbued with the personnel point of view show a change in attitude toward the "problem child." They become less concerned with the maladjustment of the child as a disturbing force in an orderly school life and become more concerned with it as a destructive force in a child's life. They see that it is the child and not the school routine which needs protection from maladjustment. They change from a policy of attaching blame and punishment to one of seeking the underlying cause of maladjustment and of trying to correct or counteract its influence on the child. Discipline as the giving of penalties changes to a form of character education. Efforts are directed toward helping the pupil attain progressive development through learning to accept responsibility for his own acts and through substituting self-discipline, or inner control, for teacher discipline, or outer control. Teachers with this conception of discipline find what happens to the pupil to be of greater importance than his immediate adjustment to school rules and regulations. They are able to shift attention from making and enforcing rules to enlisting the pupil's conscious cooperation and to creating a school environment more conducive to the conduct desired.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF SOCIAL WORK

Much of social work has been of a pioneer character, and much of this pioneer work has been taken over by other agencies. In many communities the kindergarten, the playground, the visiting-

teacher work, and certain other services were first provided by the settlement. It was not until the period from 1914 to 1921 that school systems began to introduce the visiting-teacher service into the junior and senior high schools as part of the regular schoolwork. In some high schools today the visiting teacher is one of the principal personnel workers. She helps the child in his adjustments at home and at school by interpreting the child and the home to the school and by interpreting the school and the child to the home.

In addition to the special services that it has taken over directly from social work, personnel work has received other contributions from the same source: improvements in diagnostic and therapeutic techniques, such as the interview and the case study; emphasis upon certain basic concepts of counseling; emphasis upon the influence of the home, the neighborhood, and the community upon the child's behavior; and demonstration of the value of group work.

With new emphases resulting from social changes and from increased knowledge of psychology, counseling techniques are changing. They are becoming more flexible, more selective, less directive, less concerned with facts, and more concerned with the meaning of behavior for the individual. The adoption of such methods is helping to change counseling from the giving of advice to the giving of assistance.

Certain concepts basic in social case work are also held important in student counseling, such as respect for the rights of the counselee, the significance of the relationship between counselor and student, multiple causality, and the intricacies of problems. Social work, however, is not the source of these concepts. They have come from other sources and have developed concurrently in social work, personnel work, and other allied fields. But through emphasis upon these concepts and through demonstration of their worth in practice, social work has brought about in personnel work an increased awareness of their significance.

The concept of respect for the rights of the counselee is not yet accepted in student counseling to the extent that it is in mental hygiene and social work. Because there are obvious limits to the rights of a student—limits set by his immaturity, by his lack of previous experience, and by legal requirements—high-school workers tend to see the limits rather than the rights. There are

times when counseling is not the technique to be followed, when decisions must be made and imposed. The personnel worker, of course, still has the job of interpreting the decisions, of helping the student to understand and to accept them. But because it is easier and quicker to decide and to demand than it is to counsel, students are sometimes advised and told, when they should be counseled. High-school workers still, on the whole, need to give less attention to the limits and much more to the rights of students.

Walls are needed, but walls should not be so high or so close that young things held within them cannot find the light and space needed for growing. A fundamental principle of the personnel point of view is that the ultimate objective is self-guidance. However, some authorities, in stating this principle, stress its limitations. Cox and Duff believe that students should be assisted in setting up objectives "which the teacher believes to be reasonable and worth while."¹ A wise limitation, perhaps, but it is inadequate and undesirable when decisions on worth-whileness are to be made by teachers not wise in the ways and needs of youth. One example: A normal objective of any adolescent, striving toward maturity, is learning how to get along with others. Not all teachers, however, accept this as a reasonable and worth-while school objective. When the objective is clearly that of learning how to get along with others of the opposite sex, it is likely to be censored by some teachers, often the very ones unsuccessful, because also censored, in the same objective. When objectives that are normal and dynamic for youth are made to appear not worth while or even wrong, unwholesome conditions may result—worry, conflict, and the repression or the unnatural, undesirable expression of natural, desirable needs.

When counseling is counseling, when it is more than interviewing, when it is not merely advice giving or some other adulterated form of the art and science of counseling, the rights of the counselee are recognized and respected. When these rights are not respected for any reason, good or bad, it is a contradiction to call the service counseling. It should be called by its right name—decreeing, prescribing, compelling, "making up

¹ P. W. L. Cox and J. C. DUFF, *Guidance by the Classroom Teacher* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1941), p. 76.

his mind for him," and at times only "telling him off." When the service is counseling, the student has rights. He has, among others, the right to expect to be served and to be served efficiently. He has also the right to refuse the service offered even though he may seem to need it badly. He has the right to have his personality respected and his self-esteem protected. He has the right to be himself and not some person that the worker thinks he is or should be. He has the right to present his problem as he sees it and to participate in its solution in his own way and at his own pace.

The rights of little people to self-realization and self-determination, like those of little countries, are often overlooked. In high-school counseling these rights are likely to be ignored because high-school counselors are likely to be untrained. The untrained counselor is inclined to think that big people, like big countries, know best and should therefore make the decisions. He fails to see that for the student the result may be submission rather than growth. Only when the worker respects the rights of the counselee to make good by his own efforts and in his own way is he fully able to help the student to release his capacities and to relate them to his resources. The worker who is not willing to recognize these rights may be ministering to his own needs—aggression, dominance, recognition, superiority, and others—rather than to the needs of the student.

Perhaps the most valuable single contribution of social work to personnel work has come through its insistence that counselors be trained, selected, qualified workers. The type of relationship established between counselor and counselee largely determines the extent to which the counselor can help the counselee to help himself. To establish and maintain the desired relationship, the worker needs knowledge of the dynamics of behavior and skill in applying this knowledge both to himself and to others. Such knowledge and skill are best gained from study and the disciplined experience of supervised practice.

The worker, however, must possess other qualifications in addition to that of training. To establish a relationship that is warm and responsive as well as impersonal and objective, he must have sufficient balance in his own life. To understand the feelings and attitudes of others, he must have insight into his own problems and conflicts. And to accept the student with all his

attitudes and all his problems the worker needs to be comparatively comfortable in his own skin.

Training helps the worker to avoid the common pitfalls of counseling. The trained worker avoids moralistic and coercive attitudes. He does not expect gratitude or feel a desire to punish when he is opposed or not appreciated. He is free to develop a real professional interest in the student as a distinct personality and is not tempted to foster an interest stemming from curiosity or a desire to run other people's business. He is able to replace intolerance with tolerance and tolerance with understanding. He neither expects nor desires to be a continuing force in the student's life; therefore he seeks to be an assisting rather than a supporting force.

Trained workers find it difficult to put into practice such concepts of counseling. They make many errors, and at times their counseling is neither an art nor a science. Workers, untrained and without knowledge of fundamental concepts, make many more mistakes. And in their counseling they are often more fumbling than successful.

Along with mental hygiene and other forces, social work has helped to show the influence of out-of-school groups, particularly the home, upon the child's school behavior. It has helped the teacher to recognize that many school problems are home problems originating in the parents' attitudes toward the child; in their ideas of discipline; in their expectations for him; in their efforts to work out their own ambitions, emotional needs, frustrations, and conflicts through him; in the home routine (too much or too little); and in the activities permitted to the child by the parents. Teachers are learning that the pupil's school problems cannot be studied apart from his home, his neighborhood, and his community experiences; that they must be considered in the light of the total situation.

Schools have long made use of clubs, assemblies, athletics, and other group activities. These activities are not a contribution of any movement considered here, but social work has helped to make school people more aware of their potential values. Through the settlement house, the neighborhood center, the club, the camp, the playground, the Y's, and other groups, social work has studied the effects of these activities and has revealed their great value as an important resource for helping

young people to develop wholesome personalities; for providing them an opportunity to satisfy their primary needs for participation, for status, and for creative efforts; for helping them to learn initiative and self-direction; for helping them to discover genuine interests for leisure-time use; for discovering the problems and emotional stresses of young people; for aiding the therapeutic treatment of the maladjusted; and for reeducating the misfit in new habits of reacting to society and its regulations.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE CHILD-GUIDANCE CLINICS

Among the contributions to personnel work associated most closely with the child-guidance clinics are three important principles: the principle of synthesis, the principle of prevention, and the principle of parent education.

In the case-conference technique child-guidance clinics have developed a highly scientific method for synthesizing data collected from a number of sources. Other techniques, such as the case study and the cumulative record folder or card, are based on the same principle of synthesis; but in no other technique is the principle developed to such a high point of usefulness as in the case conference.

To the conference come the persons concerned with the child and his problem. They come ready to add information that they may have on the case and to participate in the interpretation of information presented and in the formulation of plans for treatment. There is not, however, a general haphazard pooling of many miscellaneous items. Careful plans are made, and much work is done beforehand. Under the skillful direction of a trained leader a great body of information is presented in an orderly, logical manner. The case conference is only one of many counseling techniques; and, like the others, it requires skill and training on the part of the technician.

During the conference the collection of information is appraised. Significant items are selected and brought together in a meaningful whole. The many relationships in the life of the child are traced; and various factors in his home, school, play, and other environments are examined for their bearings on his problem. Teachers add items of information gathered in their daily contacts with the child, information perhaps not held important before the conference but now seen to be significant. Other

points, previously considered very important, when made a part of the whole, seem immeasurably petty. Plans and programs, formerly believed sound, may appear pathetically inadequate for a pupil now seen as a different personality with problems quite different from those first perceived.

This synthesizing of much information from many sources into one dynamic, unified, vivid pattern brings to all participants in the conference more adequate and more accurate information plus better understanding and greater appreciation of its true significance. Teachers who enter the conference room "irritated beyond all endurance by this child's behavior" often leave sympathetically interested in helping him to organize behavior patterns more satisfying to him.

Closely associated with the principle of synthesis is the principle of prevention. To prevent the appearance of invalid attitudes and unwholesome value concepts, one must know the environmental factors contributing to improper learning. To prevent the development of an immature, unhealthy personality, one must know the extent to which an individual's needs are being met. To prevent undesirable adjustive learning, one must know the psychically contagious conditions to which a child is being exposed. To prevent antisocial behavior, one must know the unwholesome forces molding a potential delinquent. In short, to prevent any undesirable personality development, one needs information from many sources concerning many factors; and one needs to have this information synthesized in some meaningful form.

The child-guidance clinics attached to the juvenile courts early found it necessary to direct their efforts toward prevention as well as toward correction. They began to serve the child before he reached the courts in order to prevent his being referred to them. They tried to discover the factors which contribute to normal behavior as well as those which produce abnormal behavior in order to prevent abnormal behavior through efforts to secure normal development.

In seeking to provide a school environment conducive to good adjustment; to discover the pupil's needs, interests, and abilities; to secure a school program and instruction commensurate to his needs and adjustments; and to secure the coordination of all forces within and without the school that may contribute to the

best development of the individual pupil, personnel workers are endeavoring to apply the principle of prevention in the school.

In handling behavior problems, the clinics found that children's abnormalities of behavior were often due to the ignorance or the selfishness of parents. Many "problem children" were brought to the clinic for help because the parents were so involved in the creation of the problem that they could not deal with it without help. To work with these parents, the clinics had to become parent-guidance clinics as well as child-guidance clinics.

Parent education continues to be important in clinic work, but the methods have changed. The modern clinic is not concerned with making recommendations to parents or with teaching them techniques for use with their children. Instead, it is concerned with helping parents to gain insight into and understanding of themselves and their children and in helping parents to achieve more satisfactory personal lives. The parents who can be brought to see the cause and effects of their own experiences gain insight into their problems and are better able to effect changes in the home, changes necessary to the child's wholesome development.

The lower schools have done far more in the way of parent education than have the secondary schools, where teachers still tend to recommend and to advise. The lower schools have learned that through work with parents the teachers may gain help as well as give it. In the elementary schools the attitude that the teacher knows what is best for the child is giving way before the realization that the parent knows the child in more than one situation and can make a contribution to the school's efforts to serve him. Many elementary schools have developed a parent-conference technique. They regard meetings with parents a coordinate part of the school program. The work of the child-guidance clinics has helped to effect this change in the attitude of the elementary teachers toward work with parents; and this, in turn, is helping to bring about a change in the attitude of the secondary-school teachers.

From the five contributing movements—vocational guidance, the measurement movement, mental hygiene, social work, and the child-guidance clinics—personnel work has received valuable tools, techniques, and concepts, which it has used in building its own foundation. How strong the foundation will be for any one

program will depend largely upon how well the personnel workers in the particular situation combine the contributions with the basic elements of personnel work. They are good contributions. They should be valued but not too highly prized. None should be overlooked; none should be overrated. All should be appraised on the basis of the personnel point of view and then put to good use accordingly.

PART II

*The Student Personnel Services
in High School*

CHAPTER IV

INTRODUCTION

Although the study of the literature reveals much confusion in the field of personnel work, it shows also that this confusion is not much more than a surface matter; that beneath the surface turmoil over terms, definitions, and scope of personnel work there lies a strong foundation of continuity and congruency. This is clearly revealed in the treatment of the different personnel services by the various authors. They may disagree with respect to the relative importance of the different services and the methods most useful in their execution; but most writers, if not all, agree that certain broad services are essential to any good personnel program in the high school.

Writers agree, in general, that certain types of personnel services are needed and that, because the services overlap, definite lines of demarcation cannot be drawn between them. But the specific services listed and described by the different authors vary in number and in names. Some writers present short lists with the services grouped according to some general classification. Others, in an apparent effort to clarify confusion concerning functions, present long lists of specific services clearly defined. These statements have the advantage of specificity; but, at times, this specificity leads to the omission of some services emphasized by other authorities. Lists, for example, as specific as the summary statement made for higher education by a committee of the American Council on Education—a list of 23 services¹—are often criticized because they are incomplete. Such statements, nevertheless, are useful because they are definite. Undoubtedly, few personnel workers in higher education accept the list as final. Since its publication, at least one member of the committee that drew it up has advocated the addition of other services.² The discussions concerning the services

¹ *The Student Personnel Point of View* (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1937), 14 pp.

² ESTHER LLOYD-JONES, "Personnel Work Today," *Journal of Higher Education*, 13:82, February, 1942.

to be added will perhaps further help to clarify hazy thinking and to decrease confusion.

It is not possible to make a satisfactory composite table showing the specific services dealt with in the writings of those who are accepted as authorities on personnel work.¹ Few authors claim to cover the full scope of the program or try to give comprehensive lists that include all the services held essential to a good program. In the exemplification and discussion of services stated in general terms, certain specific services are named; and others are clearly implied. The fact that certain services are not named by a particular author cannot be interpreted as meaning that the author considers an omitted service unimportant or unnecessary. Some writers deal specifically with only certain aspects of the total program. The specialized character of their works often precludes treatment of services more closely associated with other parts of the program. Consequently, the omission of a service cannot be held to indicate a lack of appreciation of its value. And even when an author purports to survey the field, he may not claim complete treatment of all major aspects of personnel work.

An analysis of the writings of the authorities shows that the different services named by them can be distributed into the six broad classifications listed below. Other services at times seem to be named by some writers; but a closer analysis shows that, with certain exceptions, they are the same or subitems of these six. The excepted services are housing, selection and admission of students, and related activities, which are important personnel services in higher education. On the secondary-school level, however, these services are almost entirely limited to the private schools. The personnel services that are limited to these schools are not being considered here.

According to the authorities, the following services are essential in a good student personnel program for secondary education.

¹ Writers are selected here as "authorities" on the bases of the following criteria: their publications; references made to them by other writers; inclusion of their publications in national and state lists of recommended books on personnel work; contributions by these writers to yearbooks, reports of proceedings, and other publications of learned associations; membership on regional and national committees on personnel work; influence exerted through participation in the work of associations of personnel workers and through the training of personnel workers.

1. Helping the individual to be understood—understood by himself as well as by others. This service includes the analytical and diagnostic procedures, the self-inventory service, the keeping of records, and the other activities carried on in securing and making available the information needed for knowing and understanding the student as a person.

2. Counseling the individual or, as described by some authorities, providing individualized help.

3. Helping the individual through the group. To help the student in becoming socialized, personnel work must offer him through student activities and other group procedures the special information and experiences that he needs for successful induction into the surrounding group life, youth and adult.

4. Helping the individual to progress by means of supplementary services, such as health, orientation, financial aid, work experience, placement, and follow-up.

5. Studying and improving personnel services in order to increase their value to the individual. This service includes inservice education in personnel work and evaluation of the work done. These two activities, in which the personnel specialist must assume primary leadership, are emphasized as important determinants of successful performance of the other services. Personnel workers (this includes class teachers) must be kept in training, and their work must be continuously evaluated if the individual student is to receive service adequate to his needs.

6. Providing the individual consistent, unified assistance through coordinated services. The services of all student personnel workers must be coordinated, and the personnel services in the school must be coordinated with the youth services in the community. This service of coordination is primarily an administrative or supervisory personnel service and must, in turn, be coordinated with the services of general administration and supervision.

The six classificatory items are not mutually exclusive, for these services are closely interrelated. It would be difficult to say exactly where one begins and the other ends. A good personnel program is in this respect very much like a good piece of cloth. It is difficult to distinguish the threads in a well-woven fabric; and if the threads are pulled apart or any pulled out,

the fabric is weakened and becomes less useful. Likewise, in a good personnel program it is difficult to distinguish the overlapping services; and if these services are separated or any taken out, the total program is so weakened that it becomes less useful. Just as a good fabric in order to serve its full purpose must have strong threads closely interwoven, a good personnel program must have strong services well coordinated.

The influence of the current confusion regarding the place of personnel work in the total educational program and the influence of the contributing movements are apparent in the discussions of personnel services. Writers who are strongly influenced by the measurement movement stress analysis in the understanding-the-individual service. Those who are more closely associated with the vocational-guidance movement stress the importance of helping the individual to progress by informing him concerning the fields of work from which he must choose. Similarly, those who do not make a sharp distinction between the work of the classroom teacher and that of the personnel specialist place greater emphasis upon improving personnel work through inservice education than do those who limit personnel work to a distinct aspect of education and consider it primarily the work of the specialist.

In the various discussions of the services, however, the similarities of the writers' points of view are greater than the differences. Because the writers hold the same basic philosophy of personnel work, a strong continuity and congruity underlie their treatment of the services. All writers agree that personnel work is concerned with the whole individual. Accordingly, for all writers, understanding the individual means knowing the whole individual—the physical, the emotional, and the social aspects as well as the intellectual. They warn that counseling with respect to one adjustment need must include consideration of other needs. Writers also accept the principle that personnel work must be provided for all students. Hence, counseling must be provided for all, for the well-adjusted as well as for the maladjusted student. And leaders of group work must provide for all students, for the socially maladjusted as well as for the socially well adjusted.

In like manner, throughout the discussions of each service a body of uncontroverted basic principles gives a fundamental

harmony to the theory of all writers. And although described by different names, assigned to different levels of importance, and said to be best performed through different methods, the services given are fundamentally the same—six broad services designed to help the individual student to achieve the highest possible degree of personal and social competency.

CHAPTER V

HELPING THE INDIVIDUAL TO BE UNDERSTOOD

In all personnel work the basic function is helping the student to be understood—understood by himself as well as by others. The extent to which this function is performed will largely determine the success of all other personnel services. For unless the student is fully understood as a person, any success achieved in helping him to make satisfactory adjustments, to choose, and to plan wisely will, no doubt, be mainly accidental.

The fundamental objective behind this function is to secure information that will provide a basis for understanding the individual in order to guide and to deal with him as intelligently and sympathetically as possible. To fulfill the function, personnel workers (this includes teachers) must perform sufficiently well certain specific services. They must collect significant analytical and diagnostic data. And they must collect them not once but again and again and again. They must synthesize, summarize, record, and interpret the data collected. If they omit or only partly perform any one of these services, they may expect to know the student only in part. These services can be exceedingly interesting; but also they can easily, and unfortunately sometimes do, degenerate into mechanical, routine tasks comparatively unrelated to other services. When this occurs, when collecting and recording information become a bookkeeping chore rather than a vitally important personnel service, it very likely happens because the personnel worker has lost sight of the essential purpose behind the function.

The pupil cannot be understood unless he is known. And he cannot be known unless information is had about him, not incomplete and perhaps inaccurate information gathered at random, but comprehensive information systematically gathered and carefully appraised for reliability and significance. To be usable, the information collected must be accurate. To provide a clear, vivid picture of the whole person, it must be significant and comprehensive. To relate the story of the pupil's school life,

it must be summarized in a dynamic and unified manner. To show trends and growth, it must be recorded regularly and continuously. And finally, to maintain the unity of the story and to save much waste, the information gathered in one school must be summarized and sent to the next school or other service agency.

THE INFORMATION NEEDED

Personnel workers must have an abundance of information about a student if guiding him is to be more than a groping in the dark. If they are to deal with the whole student, they must have information about his nonintellectual as well as his intellectual development, about his out-of-school life as well as his in-school life. If they are to contribute to an education based upon the needs of the individual and upon social demands, they must know the needs of the individual and the demands placed upon him by the society in which he lives. They need to know the significant factors and dimensions of his various environments and the nature and sources of his various problems. In short, in order to know the whole student in all aspects of his daily living, personnel workers need much more information than they usually find on high-school records, *i.e.*, more than mere identifying data, school marks, test scores, and attendance record. These are useful items, but they do not give the picture of a person or tell the story of his life.

Some persons may protest that the lack of recorded information does not necessarily mean that the information is not had. They may point out that the average high school is small, located in a not very large community, and that in such schools teachers really know their students and the homes. It is true that, in a small school, teachers can collect over a period of 2 or 3 years much important information about a student. Were they, however, to try to record this information, many might find it neither so definite nor so ample as they believe it to be. Besides, unless information is recorded, it is not available to other persons. The teacher does not expect to be on call with this information for everybody at all hours of the day. Furthermore, the information may be needed years after the student has left the school. Teachers do forget. Some go from the school and the community, leaving no heritage of information to their

successors. And all die eventually. Doctors and lawyers do not try to carry around in their heads the information collected on their clients. It is absurd for teachers or other professional workers to think that they should try to do so.

What information should personnel workers have on their records? For good personnel work they need such information as the following:

1. *Identifying data*—such information as name, address, age, date of birth, and the like. The addition of a photograph is desirable.

2. *Scholastic-achievement data*—including information on progress toward such objectives as appreciations, understandings, creative expression, and good work habits, as well as information concerning acquisition of information, techniques, and skills.

3. *Psychological data*—information concerning intelligence, special aptitudes, interests, attitudes, and personality traits.

4. *Physical data*—health history; medical and dental data; and general information about health, physical characteristics, appearance, and the student's attitude toward them.

5. *Mental-health data*—information concerning emotional adjustment, personal competence and confidence, significant limitations, and symptoms of conflict.

6. *Data on use of free time*—information concerning free-time activities and interests in and outside school, membership in organized and unorganized groups, role and adjustment in these groups, social competence and confidence.

7. *Socioeconomic data*—information about parents' background, occupation, and education; home and family conditions and influence; significant factors in neighborhood and other social environments.

8. *Data on nonscholastic achievement in and outside school*—information concerning significant experiences, notable accomplishments, special honors, and leadership roles.

9. Information concerning in- and out-of-school employment, gainful and nongainful.

10. Information concerning educational and vocational plans.

SECURING THE INFORMATION NEEDED

The means used for collecting the information needed are described in the literature as analytical and diagnostic techniques.

The most common of these are tests, records of achievement, records of activities, questionnaires, check lists, autobiographical sketches, diary records, time-distribution sheets, interviews, records of informal conversations with the student or with those who know him, anecdotal records, records of observation, interest inventories, and health records. Volumes have been written about these techniques, some of which deal with one technique alone. Space does not permit consideration of these techniques here, but the books that are especially useful to high-school workers are listed in the Bibliography under the heading of Analytical and Diagnostic Techniques.

In the average high school the measurement techniques are the principal mediums for gathering information about students. When measurement is conducted on a broad basis and is regularly repeated over a period of years, it becomes evaluation in the technical sense of that term and provides more significant information than is otherwise possible through measurement. When teachers see measurement as evaluation, they seek information on all aspects of the student's development in school, not development in the classroom alone. They direct it toward improvement of social behavior rather than toward external testing of isolated knowledge. They seek a knowledge of the student's needs, aptitudes, capacities, and interests in order to help him to make better use of his assets, to make choices and plans in keeping with his potentialities, and to set up harmonious ideals that will serve as useful guides for future growth. When, as Hopkins says,¹ teachers are concerned with what a student will become rather than with what he is, they make evaluation "contribute maximally to becomingness." They place the emphasis not upon status but upon growth toward all desirable educational objectives.

A school's measurement reflects its aims. The fact that the bulk of the information had about students in the average high school is information with regard to his scholastic standing is largely due to the fact that earning credit is made the primary objective of the students. The principal aim is scholastic achievement, and so the principal information had about a student is his scholastic rating. When objectives other than

¹L. T. HOPKINS, *Interaction: The Democratic Process* (Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1941), pp. 376-386.

accretion in information and proficiency in academic skills are held equally important, significant information is also sought on the attainment of these objectives.

The amazing amount of information that can be obtained about a student is revealed in the account given of the appraising and recording of student progress in the experimental schools of the Eight-Year Study.¹ Through cooperative methods the teachers in these schools sought to discover the changes produced in students with respect to such objectives as the development of social attitudes, a wide range of significant interests, increased appreciation of aesthetic experiences, social sensitivity, better personal-social adjustment, physical and mental health, a consistent philosophy of life, and the acquisition of information about the common recurring concerns of youth and the development of skill in dealing with them.

Appraisal of progress toward these objectives was not made through written examinations alone but through these and other techniques, many of which were developed especially for the purpose. More specifically: To get evidence of the social sensitivity of a student, the schools made use of anecdotal records to secure concrete descriptions of socially significant behavior. They studied his writings for expressions of social values and social attitudes. They kept records of his free-choice activities, such as vacation experiences, voluntary reading, participation in group activities, motion pictures seen, and other leisure-time activities in order to learn his social interests, the direction of his social outlook, and his social maturity. They developed free-response tests to be used in very much the same way that projective techniques are used. Through such techniques these schools gained a much better knowledge of their students than would have been possible had they limited their study to the usual measurement procedures.

THE CASE CONFERENCE

The most valuable technique for synthesizing and interpreting the data collected is perhaps the case conference, an adaptation of the child-guidance conference. In this conference the informa-

¹ EUGENE B. SMITH, RALPH W. TYLER, and the EVALUATION STAFF, *Appraising and Recording Student Progress* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1942), 320 pp.

tion gathered from many sources on a particular case is presented and considered from many angles. The presentation is given orally and is often supplemented by typed or mimeographed material distributed to the members beforehand. In one college visual aids are also used, the records being projected onto a screen.¹ After the information is presented in the conference, the case is discussed. The assets and liabilities of the student are considered, and developmental and corrective measures are planned. At a later meeting these plans will be evaluated for their effectiveness, because conference decisions are always held tentative.

The case conference has special values. Through it the teachers who are in daily contact with the student participate in the cooperative study of his case. The teachers not only bring to the conference important information gleaned from their daily relations with him, but they take back into the relationship a richer understanding and greater appreciation of him. They also go back to him more aware of the ways in which the classroom conditions contribute to his adjustment, good or bad, and perhaps more willing to make better use of classroom facilities for preventing and correcting maladjustment in any student.

The presentation of information in the conference is more effective than any cumulative record for revealing the total personality of a student. The conference not only helps the teachers to use to good purpose the knowledge gained about the student; but it also reveals their lack of knowledge about him, the need for additional items of information, and the points on which more light is needed. Also, diagnoses and prognoses arrived at through cooperative effort in the conference are subject to fewer errors than are those made by individual members. Equally important is the fact that the group method helps to decrease the number of errors in the diagnoses and prognoses made by individual teachers. After thinking a case through with the group, the individual member understands the procedure better, becomes aware of his own errors in its use, and acquires skill in appraising the relative importance of different items of information and in detecting the relationships among them.

¹ "The 'Screen List' of Columbia College," *School and Society*, 56:603-604, Dec. 19, 1942.

The conference technique is comparatively new in high-school personnel work and is not yet extensively used. When it is adopted, it is commonly used primarily for work with maladjusted students. This is in keeping with the pattern traced in the development of other aspects of personnel work. Usually techniques are first adopted for work with the problem case and are later used in work with all students. At least one high school, the University High School of Oakland, Calif., has advanced to the point of using the case conference for the study of both well-adjusted and maladjusted students. Although a quantitative survey failed to show this technique to be the most useful in gathering data, the teachers in this school considered it the most useful because it stressed the "summarization of data essential to the development of a constructive program for the good of the individual,"¹ because it presented important additional information, and because it brought a change of emphasis in the guidance of the student by helping to bring to the surface underlying problems previously unperceived or not recognized as being significant.

Of the authorities on personnel work, Germane and Germane are the ones who give special attention to this technique, which they describe as the school clinic.² Teachers interested in learning how to utilize the case conference may find the mental-hygiene literature more helpful than that of personnel work. Fenton,³ for example, gives a helpful presentation of the important considerations regarding the introduction and conduct of the conference. He also outlines various ways and means for making it effective.

THE CUMULATIVE RECORD

The data collected from the different sources are usually organized and summarized in the case-study record, the cumulative-record card, and/or the cumulative-record folder. The case-study record is the form used frequently by school psychologists,

¹ MARION BROWN and others, "The University High School Study of Adolescents," *University High School Journal*, 17:227-228, June, 1939.

² G. E. GERMANE and E. G. GERMANE, *Personnel Work in High School* (New York: Silver Burdett Company, 1941), pp. 12, 263-264, 303-304.

³ NORMAN FENTON, *Mental Hygiene in School Practice* (Stanford University, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1943), Chap. V.

psychiatric workers, personnel specialists, and others trained in its use but is seldom used by teachers. Because of the skill and the time required for making a case study, few schools can have them made for all students. Instead, they must rely upon some abbreviated form, such as the cumulative-record card.

Research studies show that cumulative records are used in many different forms, some of which are standardized and may be obtained commercially. Of these the best known and perhaps the most widely used is the American Council Cumulative Record Card. It is, however, generally considered better for a school to develop its own records through exploratory study and experimentation rather than to adopt forms that may have proved satisfactory in other school situations. The adoption of records after study and experimentation results not only in more satisfactory and usable records but also in better cooperation and better understanding by teachers of the nature and use of these records. During the process of experimentation the American Council card or some other recommended form may profitably be tried out, but it is unwise ever to use any elaborate form before the teachers experiment with more simple records. If record keeping is difficult and complicated, the record, rather than its use or purpose, may become the teacher's chief concern.

In the literature much attention is given to the usefulness of a good cumulative record. Special consideration is usually given to certain specific advantages: A good record contributes to personnel work in general by providing a sound basis for understanding the individual, by showing his significant experiences, by indicating his readiness for new experiences, and by pointing out the routes to new goals. It aids teachers in the study of the individual by making it possible for them to understand his present through an analysis of his past, by furnishing clues regarding the causes of his behavior difficulties and failures, and by disclosing his strengths and weaknesses. It aids counseling in particular by permitting the worker to use the interview time for counseling rather than for collecting information. It aids curriculum revision and improvement of teaching by revealing the needs of students and their progress toward specific goals. And it aids articulation by contributing to continuity and by providing a helpful basis for educational and vocational placement. However, to provide these advantages, the record must

offer in a meaningful form all the information needed by the worker.

FACTORS IMPORTANT TO THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE SERVICE

Some authorities are careful to sound special warnings with respect to collecting, recording, and interpreting data about pupils. A summary of these cautions shows that the most common emphases are the nine points given below. Although attention has already been given to several points, they are repeated. Their importance justifies the repetition.

1. Adequate information on the total personality of the student is indispensable in good personnel work. The information must be comprehensive, cumulative, reliable, and accurate. It must be recorded immediately after it is obtained in order to be unbiased by subsequent happenings.

2. Each analytical tool makes its special contribution; each has its limitations. The worker must know and consider these limitations in using data obtained through such tools.

3. No valid diagnosis can be made on the basis of any single item of information. Each item must be interpreted in the light of all other information about the individual. Also, because pupils are not static but are continually changing, the worker must remember that single items may not have continuous validity. An item recorded last semester may no longer be important or even true. Needless to say, items must be dated if the worker is to know when they were recorded.

4. All items of information are interrelated. Items supplement, contradict, or confirm one another. These interrelationships must be observed and considered. Counselors may increase the reliability of their estimates by basing them upon an accumulation of items. Through training and experience they may develop skill in judging the significance of various combinations.

5. Intuition, sympathy, understanding, and intelligence are essential to successful use of any technique. Neither accurate information nor unaided common sense alone provides a sufficient basis for counseling. Accurate information must be supplemented by intelligent use of the information.

6. Spasmodic recording decreases the value of records. The record should show the student's development over a period of time rather than his status with respect to a given item at a given

time. Accordingly, there must be a continuous, systematic recording of data in order to have meaningful records and to correct faulty past diagnoses. A 4-year record of social timidity has much greater significance than a single recorded observation of this fact.

7. Records should be used for continuous study of the individual. A student's record should go with him as he moves from grade to grade and from school to school. Pertinent summaries should be sent from school to employment office or to any other service agency from which the student may later seek assistance.

8. Records are not to be treated as an end but as the means to an end—the optimum development of the individual student. The recording of data cannot be used as a substitute for diagnosis and counseling. Nor can records replace personal knowledge and understanding of the student.

9. The location of the cumulative-record file may not be important, but that the records be readily available to the workers who should use them is exceedingly important.

HELPING THE INDIVIDUAL TO UNDERSTAND HIMSELF

If the ultimate objective of personnel work is self-guidance, the ultimate aim of data collecting, as Bingham maintains,¹ is to help the student to know himself. Consequently, students should be made active participants in the work of collecting and analyzing information in order that they may become sufficiently interested in the findings to put them to good use. When interested and informed, students will strive more deliberately and more intelligently to correct their weaknesses and to increase their strengths than they are likely to do otherwise. For this reason, a number of authorities agree with Germane and Germane that it is essential to interpret the results of all diagnoses to students so that they may draw conclusions and take the initiative in setting up effective remedial treatment.² Making the findings available to a student through careful interpretation helps him to gain insight into his own development, to see more

¹ W. V. BINGHAM, "A National Perspective on Testing and Guidance," *Educational Record*, Supplement 12, 20:138, January, 1939.

² GERMANE and GERMNAE, *op. cit.*, p. 312.

clearly the facts concerning himself, and to evaluate these facts in relation to his hopes and plans.

At times the exact findings of an analysis and diagnosis can be made known to the student directly. Certainly a student can participate directly in the analysis of his time-distribution reports. Such participation helps him not only to make more efficient use of his time but also to appreciate the importance of making the proper time provision for all his needs. Often, however, the findings should be given to him only in the form of a general interpretation. This is assuredly true with respect to psychological data, such as the results of intelligence tests. Many authorities doubt that it is wise to give straightforward information concerning such findings to adults. An even greater number consider it dangerous to give such information to high-school students, who do not understand the nature either of the instruments used or of the traits measured.¹ It may be even more dangerous to give this information to the student's parents, whose undesirable emotional reaction may increase any difficulties that the student may already have because of his feelings of inferiority or superiority. Therefore, it is generally desirable in giving any results to a student or his parents to interpret the results carefully and relate them to the other information had about him.

All students have judgments about themselves whether they express them or not. Since they make their plans and decisions according to their judgments, they should be given supervised experience in making judgments deliberately and systematically so that they may make them more accurately. Certain techniques, such as the self-appraisal questionnaire and the self-rating scale, have been developed and have proved to be serviceable training aids. In many schools, students receive this training in self-analysis through the orientation course. In others, self-evaluation is made a regular procedure in all classes. And in some schools students acquire skill by preparing together with the teachers the reports to be sent home to their parents.

The value of the self-analysis technique for the student and its value for the personnel worker are not the same. The

¹ For a summary of the pros and cons of this important point see Ruth Strang, *Behavior and Background of Students in College and Secondary School* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1937), pp. 140-142.

personnel worker cannot rely upon a student's self-analysis to supply the information needed in counseling. The self-analysis has definite limitations—a lack of accuracy due to the tendency of students to overrate or underrate themselves and a wide variation in its reliability according to the trait rated, the instrument used, and the conditions under which the analysis is made. Although the information made available through self-analysis does not provide a reliable basis for counseling, it does supply significant evidence concerning a student's attitudes toward himself and his problems. In addition, self-analysis serves as a helpful preparation for the interview and provides a useful basis for the discussion. It enables the counselor to help the student to see the need for proving his claim, to perceive inconsistencies, and to seek compatibility of plans, interests, and capacities.

Self-evaluation may have little value for the student if he is not directed in the process. Because in many schools students are not given the necessary assistance and because the results are often accepted at face value and used as a basis for planning, some authorities, such as Williamson,¹ strenuously oppose the use of self-analysis. Others, as Myers² and Lefever,³ believe that self-analysis is a valuable aid in helping a student to acquire skill in self-guidance. They find that it is no more logical to discontinue the use of self-analysis because it has been misused by some personnel workers than it is to assume that, because some doctors give pills to all patients and base diagnosis upon the patient's statement of his complaint, all doctors should cease to give pills or to inquire the patient's opinion concerning the nature of his illness.

While no authority accepts any more readily than does Williamson self-analysis as reliable when used exclusively as a basis for counseling, there is good evidence that many high-school workers do conduct counseling on just such a basis. Too many studies confirm the assertion of one investigator that high-school teachers

¹ E. G. WILLIAMSON, *How To Counsel Students* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1939), p. 525.

² G. E. MYERS, *Principles and Techniques of Vocational Guidance* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1941), pp. 125-164.

³ D. W. LEFEVER, A. M. TURRELL, and H. I. WEITZEL, *Principles and Techniques of Guidance* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1941), p. 164.

know less than one-fourth of the facts about their pupils which psychologists,¹ mental hygienists, and personnel specialists consider necessary for good counseling. Since the needed analytical data are not collected, counseling is done, no doubt, on the basis of self-analysis by the pupil and of that which Williamson and Darley describe as "sentimentalized intuition—ineffable and consequently above criticism."² All protests against such counseling are justifiable. In fact, more are needed.

THE SCHOOLS AND THEIR KNOWLEDGE OF STUDENTS

Few schools, not even those with the best practices, collect all the information generally described in the literature as essential to good personnel work. A study reported by Leonard and Tucker may be said to provide a picture of the best practices in that it was concerned with a group of high schools which probably have the most advanced and most nearly complete personnel programs of all high schools in the country.³ The schools were the 1,297 secondary schools which in an earlier investigation reported that they had one or more workers devoting at least one-half time to counseling. Since only about 6 per cent of all the high schools made this provision, the schools studied form a highly selected group, probably including among the 1,297 every high school in the country that has a full personnel program. In these 1,297 schools we might expect to find the best practices.

The best practices, however, are none too good. More than three-fourths of the schools recorded general personal data, teachers' marks, test scores, and attendance records. From one-fourth to one-half failed to record regularly the information that is more difficult to record but that is required for good counseling: family and home conditions, social environmental data, information on personality and interests, out-of-school activities, employment records, special attitudes, teachers' observations and

¹ H. L. BAKER, "High School Teachers' Knowledge of Their Pupils," *School Review*, 46:175-190, March, 1938.

² E. G. WILLIAMSON and J. G. DARLEY, *Student Personnel Work* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1937), p. xxii.

³ E. A. LEONARD and A. C. TUCKER, *The Individual Inventory in Guidance Programs in Secondary Schools*, Bulletin 215, Vocational Division, U.S. Office of Education (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1941), 60 pp.

anecdotes. Although many of the schools had cumulative records, only about one-half used them for occupational, educational, and general reference purposes.

Other investigations show that on the whole high schools have less than half the kinds of data considered necessary for effective personnel work. As a rule, the schools keep very careful academic and attendance records—records required by outside agencies with which the schools feel compelled to maintain satisfactory relations but not required by the student for his best development. The schools regularly keep records of scholastic achievement but not often of other kinds of achievement within school and very rarely of achievement outside school. Of psychological data, the schools frequently have information concerning intelligence but rarely concerning special aptitudes, personality traits, and disabilities. Seldom does a school have social environmental data.

Work experience is held by most authorities to be of high vocational-guidance value, but the schools do not even know what work experiences their students have. Without this information, teachers cannot relate work experiences to school experiences and to a student's plans for the future. Nor can they help the student to make use of the exploratory possibilities of his work experiences. Of the high schools studied by Leonard and Tucker only 38 per cent kept regular records of part- or full-time employment. Of the schools that participated in the California Youth Study 31 per cent had records of work done outside school.¹ And 115 of 153 high schools studied in New Jersey reported that they did not have information about the student's out-of-school employment²—its nature, amount of time required, remuneration, and the like.

Although much is read and heard about concern for the whole child, the high schools are apparently concerned with only parts of him and for only about 40 hours a week. His activities outside these hours and his personality problems and social adjustment at any hour are of little concern to the schools, if we are to judge

¹ A. E. JONES, "Provision for Guidance in High Schools of California as Revealed by State Youth Study," *California Schools*, 10:193-203, August, 1939.

² *Guidance Service Standards for Secondary Schools* (New Brunswick, N.J.: Secondary School Teachers Association, 1937), p. 25.

by their efforts to acquire such information. The conditions reported in the New Jersey survey may be considered typical. Of the 153 schools, 125 did not know how the pupil spent his leisure time; 114 did not know his membership in out-of-school groups; and 71 did not know what honors he received either within or without the school.

This lack of knowledge about students seems to be general, not peculiar to or existing to a worse degree in any section of the country or in any type of school. With respect to records, the large high schools, like the rural ones, are not "keeping records approaching adequacy for guidance purposes."¹

School administrators are not at all satisfied with this situation. As two investigators of high-school personnel work in Pennsylvania report:

Improvements which principals would like if conditions permitted are more testing, more individual counseling, better records, home visits. These are all specifically related to the problem of assembling pertinent information about individual pupils. This is the most hopeful point about personnel service in Pennsylvania today, since counseling in order to be above superficial must be based upon knowledge of the individual pupil.²

IT CAN BE DONE

Many reasons are given for the schools' failure to collect and record all data needed about students. The reasons offered most frequently are lack of time, lack of personnel, and lack of equipment. But frequently the real reason is probably the one seldom given—inertia. Record clerks and special equipment are certainly desirable, but they are not essential. When teachers become really interested in studying their students as individuals and as whole persons, inertia usually disappears. With it may vanish other difficulties, or else they may loom less large. After learning what other schools are doing to carry out this service

¹ E. DE S. BRUNNER, IRVING LORGE, and R. G. PRICE, "Vocational Guidance in Village High Schools," *Teachers College Record*, 39:220, December, 1937.

² D. A. ROTHERMEL and F. G. DAVIS, "Pupil Personnel Work in the Schools of Pennsylvania," *Pennsylvania School Journal*, 88:40, October, 1939.

without extra personnel or equipment, teachers are often inspired to explore the possibilities of their own school situation.

In one school comprehensive, usable records are being developed at a very small cost in terms of time and money. Here all staff members are constantly on the alert for information about all students. Any information obtained is sent to the student's adviser. Questionnaires, time-distribution sheets, autobiography, and other reports made by a student in orientation class are sent to his adviser. Teachers of other classes also send to the adviser all material received from a student that provides any significant information about him. Consequently, in this school the adviser's room number is as important an entry in class and other registers as is the student's name. And students know that their signatures should always be accompanied by the room numbers of their advisers.

One semester this faculty made anecdotal records a special subject for study. The teachers became interested in trying to develop skill in detecting significant incidents and in making clear, concise records of them. Incidentally, the study of anecdotal records led the next semester to a study of what to look for in student behavior. The teachers soon found that they could make several records a day without having to give a great amount of time to the work. Some teachers adopted the practice of inserting carbon paper in the record pad so that copies might be sent to the dean, to the nurse, to another class teacher, or to any other interested person as well as to the student's adviser.

The adviser studies all material received on the student and files it in an ordinary Manila folder labeled with the student's name. From time to time, but at least once a year, he prepares a summary sheet for each student. The teachers use different summary forms because the faculty has not yet decided that any one form should be followed by all. The members of the central administrative staff have become interested in this school's experiment and have offered to supply cumulative record cards. The teachers, however, do not believe that they are yet ready to accept the offer. Early in their experiment they developed a card, had it printed, and adopted it for use by all members. Two years later they abandoned the card because they found that its usefulness was not in keeping with the time and effort required for keeping it posted. They are now trying out other

cards in mimeographed form. When they find one that proves generally satisfactory, they will have it adopted by the group as a whole. In the meantime they are observing students, are holding conferences with parents and other persons concerned with the students, and are experimenting with various techniques considered useful in collecting and analyzing data. They know that their present method of summarizing and recording the data is somewhat clumsy, but they find it workable. When they find a more useful method, they will adopt it.

Other schools are making greater progress under the direction of expert assistants. The accounts of the experiences of the schools of the Progressive Education Association¹ and the Educational Records Bureau² projects show what can be done when staff members are trained in cooperative methods of studying students.

The Second World War made many high schools aware of the inadequacies of their records. The schools realized that they could not supply upon request to the armed forces or to war industries all the information that might be needed to classify their students according to interests, abilities, and aptitudes. Requests for information about a former student's character traits, special aptitudes, participation in school activities, leisure-time interests, and the like exposed how little they actually knew about their students.

The Medical Survey helped the high schools to understand the importance of learning and recording facts about a student's emotional and mental stability. The schools which took part in the Medical Survey program learned that through the cooperation of teachers they could secure all such needed information. The first experiment, the sampling study in Maryland, emphasized certain values long advocated by authorities on personnel work: the importance of observing, recording, and interpreting behavior; the value of the common-sense observation of the classroom teacher; and the value of having statements by a number of observers that could be viewed seriatim, not averaged.³

¹ SMITH and others, *op. cit.*

² A. E. TRAXLER, editor, *Guidance in Public Secondary Schools* (New York: Educational Records Bureau, 1939), 329 pp.

³ H. A. JAGER, "Plan for Locating Emotionally Unstable Youth," *Occupations*, 22:237-242, January, 1944.

Certain important inferences can be drawn from the Maryland experiment. For example, the records showed that 10 per cent of the boys studied were, in the opinion of psychiatrists, suspicious cases. If for military purposes schools can so easily identify the potentially psychoneurotic, they should be able to study all students through similar procedures in order to discover those in need of help and to supply the services needed to secure their better adjustment and in this way help to prevent the rapidly increasing rate of commitments to mental hospitals in the population as a whole.

The experiment provides strong arguments for the high schools' making complete provision for the basic personnel service of helping students to be understood. Such provision is logically unavoidable if high schools are to give in peacetime as well as in wartime regular assistance to all students so that they may help each to develop the well-balanced personality needed for successful adjustment in any type of problem situation.

CHAPTER VI

COUNSELING THE INDIVIDUAL

In the preceding chapter helping the individual to be understood was described as the basic personnel service. For its successful achievement each of the other services is largely dependent upon this one, and none so much as counseling, generally conceded to be the central service in all personnel work. In fact, so dependent is this second service upon the first that some authorities, such as Williamson and Darley,¹ make collecting and interpreting information subordinate parts of the counseling process.

This central service, counseling, is the one most emphasized in the literature but, according to all research evidence, is among the ones least well provided in the schools. This lack of adequate provision is due not, as is usually claimed, to a lack of funds but mainly to a lack of understanding of what counseling is and of what it can do in education. Probably no other personnel service is so thoroughly misunderstood or provided, when provided at all, through methods so diametrically different as is this one.

Within and outside the field of education many erroneous conceptions are held with regard to counseling. It is popularly thought of as being no more than advice giving, something that most of us feel fully competent and like very much to do. Some teachers, especially those of an authoritarian turn of mind, think of counseling largely as warning and advising, as ordering and forbidding. "For his own good" they counsel a student; and should he not heed their counsel, they usually see to it that he finds this not good. Others see in counseling a means for reforming a student, for getting him to see the error of his ways, and for persuading him to promise to do better. When the student finally succumbs and does promise, the counselor feels satisfied

¹ E. G. WILLIAMSON and J. G. DARLEY, *Student Personnel Work* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1937), 313 pp.

that he has done his job well. When the student relapses and again falls from grace, as he usually soon does, the teacher does not see this as evidence of ineffective counseling. He may only conclude that the student is weak or sinful or perhaps that he did not counsel the student enough. The teacher never suspects that he may have been wrong or weak in his counseling, only that he did not do enough of it.

Some teachers believe that as counselors their major job is to encourage and to reassure students. When a student approaches this type of counselor for help because he knows that he has made a rather sorry botch of his affairs, he is usually assured that he is an all-right kind of person and that the counselor knows that he can and will do the right thing. In the face of so much approval, the student is too ashamed to present his real problem and to let the counselor see what a no-good bungler he actually is. His problem denied, he takes it away increased, not lessened, by the counseling received.

Exhorting, ordering and forbidding, assuring and encouraging—these are the counseling methods described by Rogers as being in disrepute among trained psychological counselors;¹ but, unfortunately, they are still in good repute among some high-school workers. Not only are they in good repute, but they are often the only methods used because they are the only methods known. Untrained in good counseling procedures, teachers do not always recognize the bad.

LEVELS OF COUNSELING

Another common misconception with regard to counseling is that all of it is the same, which is not at all the case. The counseling offered different students varies according to the level of complexity of the problem, of complexity of the treatment, and of competence of the counselor. Recognition is given throughout the literature to this differentiation in counseling.

Some writers classify counseling according to the level of competence of the counselor. They describe counseling practices that range from the narrow level of the teacher to the broad level of the clinical counselor. The level of treatment provided usually

¹ CARL R. ROGERS, *Counseling and Psychotherapy* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1942), pp. 20-21.

corresponds very closely to the level of competence of the counselor.¹

It is the untrained counselor who is most likely to limit the treatment to such superficial methods as making concrete recommendations and advising the counselee to do certain specific things in order to solve his problem. This kind of counseling is nearly always useless. Either the counselee rejects the advice offered because he is unwilling to relinquish his independence, or else he accepts it because he already has a strong tendency toward overdependence and likes to have other people to make up his mind for him. In either case the problem is not solved, and in the latter instance it is definitely intensified.

Below this superficial surface level of treatment range the various levels of intellectualized interpretation by means of which the counselor seeks to educate the counselee in the meaning and origin of his behavior and symptoms and to help him to understand the interrelationships of the personalities involved in his problem. Many persons gain a great deal from this type of treatment. Many others, however, become fully able to understand their problems intellectually but for emotional reasons continue completely unable to do anything constructive about them. This situation has been encountered so frequently by psychiatrists, child-guidance clinicians, and other specialists in counseling that an even deeper level of counseling has been developed for use in dealing with cases of emotional blockage. Counseling at this level—usually referred to as “relationship therapy”—is a directed growth experience made possible for the counselee through his relationship with a highly skilled and understanding worker. Through a slow therapeutic process the counselor seeks to help the counselee to release pent-up feelings, to express, to understand, and to accept these feelings so that he may become able, emotionally as well as intellectually, to select, plot, and carry out some positive, constructive course of action.

¹ NORMAN FENTON, *Mental Hygiene in School Practice* (Stanford University, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1943), pp. 237-240; MILTON E. HAHN, “Levels of Competence in Counseling: A Post-war Problem for Student Personnel Work in Secondary Schools,” *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 2:243-256, July, 1942; ROLLO MAY, “The Present Function of Counseling,” *Teachers College Record*, 46:9-16, October, 1944.

Of greater interest and perhaps greater value to high-school workers are classifications according to the level of complexity of the counseling problem. Such is the classification presented by Lloyd-Jones,¹ who describes various levels of counseling grouped according to the depth of the problem, the degree of the student's dependency, and the length of his contact with the counselor.

According to this classification there are four general levels of counseling. At the surface level is the casual (but not superficial) informative type of counseling. The counseling given here is no more than that offered during casual contacts with students who are seeking only brief specific items of information. Here counseling, like the student's need, may be slight; but by no means can it be considered unimportant. Moreover, the same precautions apply here with respect to reliability of information offered and quality of relationship established with the student that apply at any other level of counseling, simple or complex. High quality of service at this level can contribute much toward decreasing the need for later counseling of a greater depth and toward increasing the effectiveness of such counseling should it later be needed and given.

When a student needs more extensive and more complicated information, the contact is prolonged and counseling becomes more involved. The student may also be more dependent upon the counselor for assistance in making good use of the information sought. This type of counseling situation usually occurs when a student comes seeking help in choosing an occupation, in planning a program of studies, in selecting an extracurricular activity, or in making other similar choices.

Counseling of the informative type, casual or protracted, is the kind that can often be furnished by home-room and classroom teachers provided, of course, that they are able to supply accurately and helpfully the information needed. Often the helpful friendliness is needed fully as much as the information, and often it is as consciously sought by the student as is the information requested.

¹ ESTHER LLOYD-JONES and MARGARET R. SMITH, *A Student Personnel Program for Higher Education* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1938), pp. 107-108.

Counseling of greater depth is needed by the student who displays symptoms of undesirable emotional involvement. Because of some abnormal blockage the student may be unable to come to grips with what appears on the surface to be a not too difficult or a not too unusual problem. This type of counseling should be provided only by the guidance specialist who is trained to give it. Seldom can such a case be handled successfully by the worker unskilled and untrained in this area, and serious may be the damage caused by the well-meaning but inept counselor who attempts to handle such a case.

Counseling of an even greater degree of depth is needed by the student who is troubled by a severe disturbance or by a persistent problem. Deep unconscious feelings or irrational elements may pervade and control his personality, causing him to show serious neurotic or definite psychotic symptoms. Here psychiatric care is indicated. Unless a school is so fortunate as to have on its staff a psychiatrist, it should not attempt to provide counseling at this level. Instead, it should refer the student to a clinic or to a psychiatrist for extended expert help. Unfortunately, many communities do not have reliable referral agencies for such cases. When this is the situation, the school personnel worker should seek advice and assistance from the state mental-hygiene association. Should even this source of aid not be available, the worker should communicate directly with the national association—The National Committee for Mental Hygiene, Inc., 1790 Broadway, New York, N.Y.—regarding referral resources.

Were personnel workers more energetic in making known the community's need for psychiatric and other similar services, better provision for these services might result in the form of traveling and community clinics. It will not, of course, always prove to be a case of "ask and it shall be granted"; but the uncertainty of this procedure is to be preferred to the certainty of "ask not, receive not." Furthermore, a public's awareness of a need does result at times in provision for meeting it. In one Wisconsin city a tax-supported mental-hygiene clinic has been established as part of the county program. This community's willingness to allocate tax funds for the clinic indicates that progress has been made in securing public recognition of the need for this kind of public service.

THE PROCEDURES IN COUNSELING

Another prevalent misconception with regard to counseling is that it involves only one procedure—the interview. But counseling is not synonymous with interviewing, nor is interviewing equivalent to counseling. Of a more complex and specialized nature, counseling includes more than the interview. Among other things it includes record keeping, observation, and other analytical and diagnostic techniques of which the interview is only one. It includes study of all available information on the student; it includes discovery of school and community resources of possible usefulness to the case; and it includes conferences with others to check soundness of judgments made and to secure general and technical information and advice on the case. Counseling begins before the student enters the conference room, and it may continue long after he leaves it. Indeed, some writers make the service so broad that in their presentations of the subject it is difficult to distinguish between counseling and personnel work. The two terms, counseling and personnel work, are, however, no more synonymous than are counseling and interviewing. The fact that there cannot be counseling without interviewing has, no doubt, led to the common error of identifying the two. And, as Lloyd-Jones states,¹ the fact that words are the “chief implements of intellectualization” has, no doubt, led to the glorifying of the interview in student counseling.

Various counseling procedures are described in the literature, but writers agree in general that certain specific features should be provided in any counseling situation below the casual informative level. The different procedures overlap and do not develop in any fixed order. The importance of any feature is largely determined by a particular counseling situation. Although no feature should ever be overlooked, there are times when a great deal of consideration need not be given to one or another step. Thus the important feature with respect to release of feelings will not require very much attention in the case of a student whose problem is obviously not being aggravated by emotional complications. Likewise, establishing rapport with an especially friendly youngster may offer no problem whatsoever. This student is going to like the counselor and be his friend whether

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 111.

the counselor deserves to have friends or not. But procedures do not usually develop so easily, and in the average counseling situation the worker will need to give careful consideration to guiding the process through the following stages:

1. The counselor prepares for the interview. Before the conference hour he examines the student's cumulative record and studies all other information available about this person in order that he may be better able to understand him and his problem. The more serious the problem, the more important is this period of preparation. At times a counselor may have little opportunity to secure the information needed before an interview. But, regardless of how pressing the problem and how short the time, an additional delay, sufficiently great to give the counselor time to look over the student's record, will in the long run prove a saving in terms of both time and false moves. When records are good records, they are as useful in counseling as are good maps in traveling. Records, like maps, help to point the way and to forestall much aimless wandering.

2. The counselor seeks to make it possible and easy for the counselee to make full use of the counseling situation. This is often described as establishing rapport and defining the situation. To make successful cooperative action possible, the counselor must build and maintain a satisfactory personal relationship with the student. Because success in counseling depends largely upon the kind of relationship established with the student, many writers give careful attention to the various methods that have proved useful in establishing and maintaining rapport. They do not offer general rules to cover all situations, but they do point out a number of factors important in most situations:—the counselor's reputation for being competent, sympathetic, understanding, and fair and for respecting a student's confidences; adequate knowledge about and interest in the problems of young people; preparation for the interview in order to give the proper setting and an atmosphere of friendliness, of sincere interest in the student as an individual, and of willingness to give unhurried attention to his needs and problems; beginning the interview in an easy, cordial manner; and having a repertory of techniques for work with a variety of students in a variety of situations.

As early as possible the counselor's role should be clarified in order that the student may know the role that he is to play.

The student must know whether the counselor is present in order to supply the answers, to select the right goals, and to make the decisions or whether the counselor is present in order to help him, the student, to work out the answers, to make his own decisions, and to act for himself. The role of the student in the second instance will be very different from that in the first.

3. The counselor seeks to free the student from any tensions and fears that may be blocking the way to clear understanding and to constructive action. An impersonal, but not disinterested, attitude on the part of the counselor makes it possible for the student to make known his anxieties, whereas surprise, shock, and anger on the part of the counselor make the release of such feelings difficult, if not impossible. The wise, understanding counselor accepts unperturbed all attitudes and speeches on the part of the student. By not praising the fine and by not censoring the unlovely, he helps the student to feel completely free to say just what he does feel about the whole business. And what the student feels about his problem is often far more important than what he may say about it. If the student wants praise or fears blame, he will say only what he believes he should say. Meanwhile, negative feelings will remain repressed and will continue to block any impulse toward positive, constructive action. On the other hand, full expression of negative feelings—hostility, anxiety, concern, ambivalence, indecision, and the like—may lead to an understanding and an acceptance of these feelings and in this way leave the student free to express and to act upon his more positive impulses.

4. The counselor helps the student to gain self-understanding. The success achieved in helping a student to release negative and positive feelings determines in no small measure the success attained in helping him to understand and accept himself. Unless the student is clear concerning his feelings, he will find it difficult to be clear in his thinking about himself or his problem.

The adolescent frequently sets very high and rather rigid ideals for himself. These ideals are often unattainable. Concern over supposed moral failure may take the form of self-blame and/or critical attitudes toward teachers and parents, toward home and school. Many counselors find no difficulty in permitting a student to give expression to his negative feelings against the persons and institutions impinging upon him, but

they feel compelled to intercede when he begins to pick himself apart. Yet these negative feelings against himself may be the ones which the student may most need to get rid of. Assuring a student who feels that he is completely worthless that he really is worth while does not help him to gain the release that he needs. If, however, the student has a chance to admit how he actually does feel about himself, he no longer feels compelled to explain how no-good he is and is willing to consider whatever there may be about him that can be termed worth while. He soon finds that his is not a completely hopeless case and that he does have some good qualities after all. He is then able to consider his strong as well as his weak points. No longer tortured by feelings of failure and of complete inadequacy, he may be willing to consider reducing his goal; and, instead of striving to reach the unattainable or to be at the top, he may be willing to seek a more reasonable goal, striving to be a better person rather than a perfect one.

When a student is ready and willing to accept himself as he actually is, the counselor tries to help him to acquire further self-knowledge by explaining to him in nontechnical language what he, the counselor, and others have learned about him through tests, conferences, observations, and other analytical and diagnostic techniques. Through careful explanations he helps the student to acquire an enlightened understanding of his assets and liabilities and to consider their possibilities and implications in relation to immediate and future decisions and plans.

5. The problem is identified and examined. It is often at this point that counseling seems to begin. The student comes to the counselor because he wants assistance with a problem. He states the problem "as he sees it." But when the student has an opportunity to tell exactly how he feels about the problem and when he gains a better understanding of himself, he may see things differently and may find that his problem is really a different one. Through talking he is able to project his problem outside himself, where he can identify it and view it in relation to himself, a distinct personality, similar to but different from all other persons.

Perhaps it is here that reassurance does have a legitimate place in counseling, especially in the counseling of adolescents. It is comforting to the average adolescent to know that other boys

and girls are facing similar problems. At a time in life when being like others is highly important, a young person finds it easier to accept and to live with a problem if he knows that other students are wrestling with difficulties of a like nature. The adolescent finds it reassuring to know that his problem is not a peculiarity which sets him off as different from his fellows. If this reassurance can honestly be given, he should have its aid and comfort.

6. The course of action is planned. Some of the more recent literature emphasizes that planning should be carried on cooperatively through democratic procedures. Students, however, should not be permitted to learn through counseling, as too many have already learned through classwork, that strange and surprising interpretations are given at times to this term "democratic procedures." Students are often told in class that they may work at the project of their choice and in the way that they propose. And too often they learn, without being told, that they must keep on proposing until they hit upon the project of the teacher's choice. Such procedures are confusing and annoying to young people. They must not be asked to go through similar procedures in counseling.

There are writers who believe that full freedom of choice should not be permitted the counselee. They believe that the selection of goals and the making of decisions must be carefully controlled by the counselor. Reed,¹ for example, considers an important principle of personnel work to be that the ultimate decision should rest with the counselor. Williamson and Darley² and others of the University of Minnesota describe a counseling process in which the counselor plays the dominant role. It is the counselor who assumes responsibility for selecting the goals and finding the best routes to them. While he tries to be friendly, sympathetic, and understanding and strives to make decisions in keeping with the interests, abilities, and needs of the student, he does exert his personal influence in every possible

¹ ANNA Y. REED, *Guidance and Personnel Services in Education* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1944), p. 53.

² J. G. DARLEY, *Testing and Counseling in the High-school Guidance Program* (Chicago: Science Research Association, 1943), 222 pp.; E. G. WILLIAMSON, *How to Counsel Students* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1939), 562 pp.; WILLIAMSON and DARLEY, *op. cit.*

way to induce the student to adopt the course that he believes to be most advantageous. To this end he seeks the student's cooperation and invites him to participate in the deciding and planning. But in the final analysis the student plays a rather passive role. He is more or less manipulated by a counselor who seeks to gain the student's acceptance of the counselor's diagnosis and recommendations for action. The counselor does the major part of both the thinking and the talking. Initiative, responsibility, and resourcefulness are considered desirable on the part of the student; but on the part of the counselor they are held essential.

Counseling thus conceived is generally referred to as "directive counseling" and may be thought of as standing at one end of a scale showing the continuum of counseling. At the other end stands the type termed "nondirective counseling." Here the counselor helps the student to clarify the different courses of action and his feelings concerning them, but he takes care not to offer advice or to indicate a preference for any specific course. Here it is the counselee who is the more active participant. It is the student who assumes responsibility for working out the solution to the problem, who determines the goal, and who selects the way to it.

7. The selected course of action is carried out. Both the student and the counselor take action to effect solution of the problem. Action on the part of students will vary according to their nature and the nature of their problem. Action on the part of the counselor will be directed toward helping the student to achieve success in his proposed program. This may mean a modification of the student's environment through a change of teachers, a change of program, and the like. It may mean enriching the environment by providing social and recreational activities, by increasing the opportunity to enjoy and to create beauty, by extending responsibility for critical thinking and for self-direction. It may mean provision for special assistance through remedial instruction, medical aid, and other special services.

Action on the part of the counselor, as in the case of students, will be determined by the particular circumstances. But in all cases it involves locating the sources of aid and coordinating the services received by the student from these sources. There is

agreement, furthermore, that action on the part of the counselor does not include forcing conformity on the part of the student. This is an ill-advised but a very common practice. It is also, as Williamson says,¹ a practice that is frequently rejected with respect to emotional and social problems but often complacently accepted with respect to educational problems.

8. Referral may be made to other workers. The counselor asks other workers to check his diagnoses and to review his plans. At times he may not deal with a student at all but will direct him to another worker who, he believes, is better qualified to give the service needed.

9. The case is followed up. The student may not seek another conference if he has already received the assistance needed for dealing with the problem. This is the situation that the counselor wishes to exist; but a student's not returning does not always mean that this situation actually exists, that he can deal with his problem without further help. The counselor must follow up every case and should seek an evaluation of the counseling results. In the ideal situation the student is always a participant in the evaluation process.

10. A record is made of the case. Because of his excessively heavy case load, the average high-school worker finds it difficult to keep careful records of every case. But some kind of record should be made. Because the worker is carrying many cases, he should make the record as soon as possible so that the facts and impressions of one case may not become confused with those of another. The record should be clear and concise. It should also be dated. The absence of a date item can render an otherwise good record almost completely useless.

DIRECTIVE VS. NONDIRECTIVE COUNSELING

The procedures followed by different workers in counseling may be very similar, but the methods used in applying these procedures may be very different. In accordance with the method employed, counseling is often designated as directive or non-directive, the two somewhat opposing methods referred to above as marking the extremes of an imaginary counseling scale.

These two methods, directive and nondirective, have certain distinguishing characteristics. In the first the more important

¹ WILLIAMSON, *op. cit.*, p. 125.

role is played by the counselor, in the second by the student. In the first the direction of the whole process is in the hands of the counselor; and the focus is upon a problem, its cause and treatment, rather than upon a student. In the second the focus is upon a student, and counseling is directed toward helping him to develop the ability to achieve satisfactory adjustment in any problem situation rather than to a particular problem. In directive counseling the central feature is intellectual interpretation; in nondirective counseling the central features are release of feelings and achievement of insight.

In counseling the term "insight" has the same meaning that it has in other learning situations. The counselee achieves insight when he sees and understands the situation as a whole, when he makes the proper features the prepotent ones, when he can see the means-end relations in the situation and on the basis of this understanding can organize his behavior with respect to his goal. He achieves greater insight when he grasps the essential principles underlying the solution of one problem and is able to apply them in the solution of other problems.

Nondirective counseling in its most highly developed form is in the nature of therapy and is a long, slow process. In its most highly developed form directive counseling is probably the type termed "clinical counseling" and promoted by Williamson and Darley. According to Darley,¹ the effectiveness of this type of counseling rests upon two foundation stones—the worker's competence in statistical and measurement techniques and his skill in interviewing. Both types of counseling in their most highly developed forms are considered the function of the specialist rather than of the classroom teacher.

The counseling provided in the average high school or college falls somewhere along the scale between the two extremes. Most frequently it is nearer the directive end of the scale, although it is probably not often carried out in the careful scientific manner prescribed by Williamson. In contrast, social workers, mental hygienists, and child-guidance clinicians are turning away from this type of counseling toward a less directive approach. It is easy to understand, however, why school people continue to cling to the more directive method. It is more in keeping with the traditional pattern of education. It is quicker, hence easier, to

¹ DARLEY, *op. cit.*, p. 166.

use with the large number of students assigned to a counselor. Also, the normal relationship between teachers and students is, for the most part, more authoritarian than democratic. Similarly, directive counseling is characterized by an atmosphere more authoritarian than democratic.

The great cost in terms of time and the lack of trained workers make it almost impossible for many high schools to provide counseling of the extremely nondirective type. But because this type is organized around the concept of individual growth, it is exerting a definite influence upon the counseling procedures of student personnel work, especially upon the choice of methods in dealing with the adjustment problems of maladjusted adolescents. Along with many authorities on mental hygiene, some authorities on personnel work are advocating the adoption of counseling procedures that have certain important characteristics of nondirective counseling: (1) establishing a relationship in which the student can relate himself in a more adult fashion to another person and thereby achieve a greater degree of responsibility; (2) making the individual rather than the problem the focal point in order to help him to achieve greater independence and integration through greater understanding of himself; (3) emphasizing the emotional or feeling aspects rather than the intellectual aspects of the interview; and (4) centering attention upon the immediate situation rather than upon the past.

The influence of these conceptions upon student-counseling methods is apparent in some of the more recent literature. Although the methods advocated continue to be more directive than nondirective, they are less directive than formerly. An excellent illustration of the trend toward the nondirective approach is given in a publication dealing with the religious counseling of college students. The authors state that in religious counseling the worker should apply "certain well-tried procedures in dealing with problems of student adjustment."¹

The presentation of these procedures indicates an acceptance of concepts of counseling based upon a combination of the directive and the nondirective theories. Tendencies toward a nondirective approach may be noted merely by reading the opening sentences of the various sections on the suggested procedures:

¹ T. W. MERRIAM and others, *Religious Counseling of College Students* (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1943), p. 8.

The counselor seeks to understand the individual and the specific problem which occasions the interview.

The counselor seeks to relieve tensions and fears.

The counselor seeks to develop self-understanding in the individual.

The counselor assists the individual in identifying and formulating his problem.

The counselor helps the individual formulate a course of action.

The counselor assists the individual in reviewing and evaluating the results of his action, and in relating the results to his problem.

The counselor relates the individual to groups with which he has common interests.¹

Although the counselor continues to be the dominant figure, he has become more of an assisting than a controlling force. Efforts to release tension and fear precede attempts at intellectual interpretation. Emotional development is furthered through the self-revealing process, and growth in independence is encouraged by granting the student greater responsibility for working upon his problem. Moreover, this representation of counseling procedures emphasizes another significant trend in student personnel work—increased awareness of the need for coordinating counseling and group work.

In this particular description of counseling procedures it is clear that here, as in nondirective counseling, the cornerstone of success is not the counselor's skill in measurement and statistical principles, important as this may be. Instead, it is his understanding of the dynamics of human behavior, his knowledge of the psychology of personality and of man's adjustment and maladjustment to his environment, his scope of information about life problems and the problems of mental hygiene in particular, and his clear perception of the influence of emotional and social-cultural factors in determining the attitudes and the behavior of the counselee. Here the counselor does not use his skill in interviewing in order "to sell the student certain ideas about himself, certain plans of action, or certain desirable changes in attitudes."² Nor does he employ "persuasion and logic" to "facilitate and hasten the sale of such ideas."³ Instead, he uses his skill in order to assist a student to acquire self-understanding, to make his

¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 8-23.

² DARLEY, *op. cit.*, p. 169.

³ *Ibid.*

own plans, and to effect his own changes. He tries to raise "questions which bring out relevant feelings, facts, experiences" and at the proper time to offer significant comments that will help the student to "talk around" his problem.¹ He is far less concerned for the sale of a particular idea than for the growth of a particular student.

No one type of counseling will prove equally useful in all cases. All students do not need nondirective counseling; and, conversely, directive counseling does not serve the needs of all students at all times. While advocates of the directive method recognize that not all students profit from this type of counseling, they tend to ignore that another type may be more appropriate. For instance, Darley writes:

Beware of the student who discusses his problem freely and who comes back periodically for a good heart-to-heart talk but who, between interviews, does nothing to help himself and does not follow out suggestions. Such cases can seldom be helped.²

Perhaps the last sentence should be reworded to read: "Such cases can seldom be helped by directive counseling." Apparently this student needs more than intellectual interpretation. He needs a type of counseling that will free him from his emotional dependency upon others and help him to achieve the growth required for undertaking self-directed action. Should any case ever be given up as completely hopeless? Is not this a case for referral? Perhaps the warning should be not "Beware the student" but "Be on the lookout for this type of student, and refer him to a specialist able to give the assistance needed."

It is highly questionable whether schools and colleges should attempt to offer the extreme nondirective type of counseling, but there can be no question concerning their obligation to discover the students in need of such service and to refer them to some reliable source of help. The Medical Survey showed the number of incipient neurotics and psychotics in our schools to be greater than is commonly believed.³ It also revealed the great amount that can be done by teachers in locating these cases and in helping

¹ MERRIAM and others, *op. cit.*, pp. 10-11.

² DARLEY, *op. cit.*, p. 178.

³ H. A. JAGER, "Plan for Locating Emotionally Unstable Youth," *Occupations*, 22:237-242, January, 1944.

to make it possible for these students to receive the assistance needed before their difficulties become too serious for any type of treatment to be effective.

PERSONALIZATION, INTEGRATION, AND COORDINATION
THROUGH COUNSELING

Other indications of the trend from a directive to a nondirective approach in counseling are found in some recent definitions of counseling. Although the literature presents a number of definitions with many different points of emphasis, it shows a trend toward a broad concept, toward the counseling described by Cowley as a process to aid in personalizing,¹ integrating, and coordinating education. The definition offered by Wrenn illustrates this broad concept:

Counseling is a personal and dynamic relationship between two people who approach a mutually defined problem with mutual consideration for each other to the end that the younger, or less mature, or more troubled of the two is aided to a self-determined resolution of his problem. . . .²

Because counseling is organized around one or more direct contacts with a student, it is always personal. The authorities firmly oppose terms that deny the personal nature of all counseling. "Group counseling" is declared an anomaly and "personal counseling" a tautology.³ And to Myers "group counseling" makes about as much sense as does "group courting."⁴

Counseling seeks integration of an individual rather than the solution of a problem. The wise counselor tries to secure the student's progressive development toward solving problems unassisted, without the need for personal consultation with a counselor. Therefore, he takes care not to make the student dependent upon him by solving his problem for him. Instead, he seeks to give the student only the help needed to enable him

¹ W. H. COWLEY, "A Preface to the Principles of Student Counseling," *Educational Record*, 18:217-234, April, 1937.

² C. G. WRENN, "Counseling with Students," *Thirty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, Part I, p. 121, 1938. Passage italicized in the original.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 119.

⁴ G. E. MYERS, *Principles and Techniques of Vocational Guidance* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1941), p. 249.

to do his own thinking and to solve his own problem so that he may be able to solve the next one more intelligently and with less help or no help whatever. Solving a present problem neatly and quickly is considered of less consequence than acquiring a technique for handling future problems adequately and independently.

Integration requires that the student shall be free to reject any help offered; otherwise he will not acquire the independence necessary to real growth. Even though the counselor's plan may be excellent and the student's plan very poor, it still is better for the student to develop and to try out his own plan than for him to adopt the sure-fire plan of another. When counseling becomes problem solving and when forcing conformity is the means most often employed in solving the problem, integration is defeated. Besides, such a conception of counseling is, as Williamson states,¹ the "very antithesis of the doctrine of individual differences."

Writers who see counseling as integration point out the obstacles to establishing desirable counseling relationships often encountered by workers who must also act in a disciplinary capacity. This difficulty is due to the fact that the relationship between the counselee and the counselor with the mental-hygiene point of view is quite different from the usual relationship between student and teacher and between student and administrator. The counselor must be tolerant as well as friendly. He does not make moral or ethical judgments, and he treats the student as his conversational equal. Consequently, when the counselor must combine administrative and counseling functions, he finds it exceedingly difficult, if not actually impossible, to establish the relationship required for making the counseling interview a sensitive mental-hygiene procedure.

Further obstruction to integration is found in the practice of classifying counseling according to problems. Too often counselors attempt to fragment a student in order to deal with his problems one by one. But counseling cannot be typed according to problems.² Nor can problems and needs be classified accord-

¹ WILLIAMSON, *op. cit.*, p. 125.

² Although most authorities show that no satisfactory classification of problems can be made, many do try to indicate the most common and important adjustment needs of students in order to determine the particular

ing to types, because a student's adjustment needs invariably fall into a constantly shifting complex pattern of many interrelated parts. Regardless of how important the surface aspect may seem, careful consideration must be given to all other aspects; for no problem "can be diagnosed independently of other problems any more than a student can be studied independently of his environment."¹

The surface problem of today will not always be the one uppermost tomorrow. Furthermore, the surface problem may be of one sort, whereas the real underlying difficulty may be of an entirely different nature. A student may come seeking help with a vocational problem; but, before counseling proceeds very far, the worker may discover that the real problem is a social one. The student may present the vocational problem first because he finds it easier to talk about or because he thinks that the counselor will consider a job problem more respectable than a boy-girl difficulty. When he finds that it is safe to confide in the worker, he brings his real problem to light. This situation is well illustrated in the report of a study of the reading difficulties of 100 University of Chicago freshmen.² The investigator found that reading was only one element in a composite of factors which were handicapping the students. Associated with the reading problem were many others—educational, health, environmental, emotional, social, financial, and vocational in nature.

Consequently, in working with a student concerning any problem, the counselor must give attention to his needs in all areas. He deals with each in relation to the others. He cannot divide the student into a number of segments in order to deal neatly and systematically with each one separately. He may, of course, refer the student to other workers for special assistance with certain problems, such as health; but if he does do so, he takes care to provide for the coordination of all such services through the counseling process.

services that should be included in the personnel program. Williamson, for example, classifies problems according to those of personality, of educational orientation and achievement, of vocational orientation, of health, and of a financial nature. But he takes care in the treatment of each to show its interrelationships with the others. *Op. cit.*, pp. 180-524.

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 404.

² R. L. McCAUL, "Student Personnel Opportunities for the College Remedial-reading Teacher," *School Review*, 41:158-163, March, 1943.

Counseling is coordination. It has been described as the "means whereby such goals as vocational orientation, educational adjustment, and mental hygiene are achieved."¹ It is also the means whereby such goals are related or coordinated. For in counseling all the facts about and all the experiences of the student are brought together to aid in the solution of his problem and to relate opportunities to his needs. In good counseling all the resources of the school and of the community are marshaled to assist the student in achieving the best possible adjustment. Skillful counseling, moreover, will bring about the coordination of student response, teacher participation, and parent understanding.

EVERY TEACHER A COUNSELOR?

Counseling, described as being incidental and unscientific in the past,² is today still found to be in many high schools "superficial or positively dangerous"³ because it is unplanned and unsystematic, is based upon little accurate information, and at times is colored by prejudice. Many authorities believe that this condition will continue in the schools as long as counseling is made the function of untrained workers.

There are writers who believe that all counseling should be left to the classroom teacher. This is the point of view on which most schools have acted in providing for counseling through the home-room plan or through some other arrangement whereby every teacher becomes a counselor. It is a plan often reported and occasionally protested. It does not, however, require many conversations with the teachers or the pupils of schools that follow such a plan to discover how ineffectual and desultory such counseling can be. As a rule, it is principally advice-giving, based upon superficial observation and hasty diagnosis, and is often inappropriate to the needs of the student.

Counseling at all levels can seldom be provided through the every-teacher-a-counselor plan. Every teacher can, no doubt, offer counseling at certain levels; but for a school to provide counseling at only those levels is not sufficient. Too often the

¹ WRENN, *op. cit.*, p. 122.

² MYERS, *op. cit.*, p. 248.

³ J. A. McCLINTOCK, *Personnel Procedures in the Secondary School* (New York: Psychological Corporation, 1940), pp. 1-4.

counseling thus provided is only at the most superficial levels, and even at these levels it may not always be good counseling. Because of the counselor's lack of skill it may be little more than warning, persuading, and advice-giving. Counseling is a professional skill, hard won and slowly achieved. It is not a skill that every teacher possesses. The teacher-counselor may fully understand the function of counseling in providing information (an important function); but without training he seldom understands its function in helping a student to acquire the freedom from emotional blockage, the insights, the understandings, the skills, and the experiences that he needs in order to develop the confidence and the ability required for dealing independently with his problems. This is the skill and understanding offered by the competent counselor especially trained for his task. It is important to add that case-study data show that the chances of improvement for a case increase with depth of counseling or complexity of treatment. It is logical to assume that increased complexity of counseling calls for increased competence on the part of the counselor.

Also, investigations show that the counseling offered by class teachers generally falls into the stereotype of counseling concerned with one or two kinds of problems—academic deficiency and misconduct—with almost complete disregard for all other kinds of problems.¹ In many schools the students, reflecting the attitude of the teachers, usually believe that they should seek conferences with their counselors “for purposes of securing assistance from the teacher on matters of school work and for that reason alone.”² When counseling is thus stereotyped, it is not personal but becomes as ineffectual, as indiscriminate, and as insufficient as are some of our mass techniques of teaching.

When counseling is made the function of every teacher, there is little chance of its serving all the needs of students unless the school is definitely superior in its organization and methods and employs teachers who are trained to perform functions other than

¹ K. L. CLARK, “Developing a Faculty Committee on Pupil Adjustment,” *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-school Principals*, 22:1-9, April, 1938; C. R. SHAW, “Teacher-pupil Conferences—Purpose and Initiation,” *School Review*, 46:37-43, January, 1938; E. G. WILLIAMSON, “Faculty Counseling at Minnesota,” *Occupations*, 14:427, February, 1936.

² SHAW, *op. cit.*, p. 39.

those of teaching. When, as one school reported,¹ all teachers possess knowledge of individual development and professional skill much beyond the average and are genuinely interested in the development of the individual pupil; when teachers have the help of specialists and have established good working relationships with them; when all staff members are engaged in cooperative study and use of many techniques in order to learn about the growth of each student and to use this knowledge to guide him wisely; when the necessary administrative steps are taken to facilitate this cooperative study and action, then, and perhaps only then, the school may report that through teacher-counselors it provides satisfactory counseling for all its students.

THE NEED FOR SPECIAL CERTIFICATION REQUIREMENTS

The condition essential for the success of a plan calling for counseling by every teacher is lacking in the average high school—knowledge on the part of every teacher concerning individual development and professional skill in counseling. If all teachers are to counsel, then all teachers should be required to take courses in case study and in the philosophy and methods of personnel work as they are now required to take courses in the philosophy and methods of teaching. No teacher is permitted to teach until he has had the training necessary to ensure his having the required knowledge of the subject and skill in teaching it. In contrast to this, any teacher may counsel even though, in order to perform this function at certain levels, he must have greater knowledge and must possess skill in using techniques more difficult than those employed in teaching. Unqualified teachers may not teach, but unqualified counselors may counsel in spite of the fact that the injury done to a pupil through faulty counseling may be more serious and more lasting than the harm done through faulty teaching.

If teachers are to become pupil-conscious rather than subject-conscious, it is necessary that they work with students as individuals. It is also necessary that they be trained to do so. Certainly, training should be required at least of the workers who perform the more highly specialized functions of the counselor and of the other personnel specialists. For many years authori-

¹ C. W. FLEMMING, "Cooperative Effort for Guidance in the Horace Mann School," *Teachers College Record*, 44:336-346, February, 1943.

ties have been urging that definite standards be set for the training and for the certification of specialists in personnel work, but in only a few states have definite certification requirements been made concerning the training and experience of such specialists. Moreover, there is nothing in the regulations of these states to indicate that a teacher may not serve as counselor in the role of home-room teacher, class teacher, class adviser, or the like without proof of ability to do so.

In response to a request for information regarding the state requirements for certification in "guidance or pupil personnel work," 38 states replied that they did not have special requirements or issue certificates in this work, that a high-school certificate was considered sufficient license. One state official offered the explanation that the "guidance work is in its infancy in this state as is true in most states." This state official, with some others, perhaps, apparently believes that, unlike other infants, personnel work does not need special attention to ensure its survival and growth. That personnel work is faring no better than are other neglected infants is clearly shown in the reports upon investigations of high-school personnel practices. Such reports have made some writers suggest that the infant might fare better in a different environment. Washington,¹ for example, believes that at least one aspect of it, vocational guidance, will find the environment of social work more conducive to good development. He protests that vocational guidance is merely a sideline in education because the teacher is mainly interested in the curriculum. Because the social worker is interested in the individual and because he receives definite training in counseling individuals, he is better qualified than the teacher, Washington believes, to perform the functions of this phase of personnel work.

THE TRAINING OF COUNSELORS

A number of research studies show that the major inadequacies of teacher preparation lie in the qualities and duties that are not closely related to subject instruction. Because of such findings and because of the obvious need for a type of teacher preparation broader than that usually offered, there has developed a strong

¹ F. B. WASHINGTON, "Social Work and Vocational Guidance," *Occupations*, 14:547-562, March, 1936.

attitude in favor of teacher training that involves more than the usual college courses. Many writers believe that the laboratory situation must be introduced into the training program if teachers are to be adequately trained for effective performance of personnel services.

This is the type of training advocated by the junior-college administrators who participated in a survey study of the major problems of teacher education. A total of 92 per cent of the group stated that teacher-training institutions should do something to train prospective instructors for counseling. A majority of the group felt that actual practice by the teacher candidates would be necessary in order to be of much effect.¹ The specific recommendations with regard to training in personnel work ranged from reading programs to a thorough apprentice-training program, but a general summary of the responses showed:

Generally interpreted, the consensus of opinion implies that the teacher training institution ought to offer a good course in student personnel work plus participation in a counseling program under careful supervision.²

Some progressive teacher-training institutions are now providing apprentice-training programs. One college arranges with the local public schools for its student teachers to assume responsibility for parts of the personnel program under the direction of their college supervisors.³ In this way the students are able to relate theory and practice and to develop some of the special skills important in personnel work. The University of Minnesota provides laboratory training principally through the use of the clinic conference.⁴ One group of students testified to the

¹ D. B. PUGH and R. E. MORGAN, "Faculty Needs and Requirements," *Junior College Journal*, 13:430-431, May, 1943.

² *Ibid.*, p. 431.

³ F. G. DAVIS, "The Laboratory Method in the Training of Guidance Workers," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 25:481-490, October, 1939.

⁴ W. F. DUGAN and C. G. WRENN, "An Evaluation of a Guidance Induction Program in Teacher Training," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 27:53-61, January, 1941; R. B. EMBREE, "Participation in Guidance for Student Teachers," *Education*, 59:620-623, June, 1939; H. M. SHAFER, "Personnel Laboratory Provides Personnel Work Practice for Student-teachers at Minnesota," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 26:691-696, December, 1940.

usefulness of this type of training when its members rated this "induction program" into personnel work the most valuable part of their program of student teaching.¹

In another institution future counselors receive a longer and more intensive type of training in a guidance center or laboratory. This teachers college provides training for personnel workers through actual supervised experience in counseling.² Students are selected for training on the bases of personality, experience, aptitude, scholastic ability, and preparation in terms of courses in personnel work, psychology, and sociology. The training in counseling is also combined with courses in psychology, mental hygiene, testing, and personnel work and with personnel programs in schools, colleges, community centers, business, industry, and government agencies.

Cases for counseling are selected that cover the normal range of counseling carried by school workers. Under supervision the student counselors participate in case work through observation, testing, interviewing, remedial instruction, record keeping, and case conferences. Two types of case conferences are provided. Once a week the students meet in groups of three or four with their supervisors to study the problems, techniques, and plans involved in the case work of each member. Also, once a week students and supervisors meet with the special consultants—vocational, medical, psychological, and psychiatric—in the "integration conference" to study common problems and to hear and discuss a case of special significance in their work. A variety of widely accepted theories are represented by the staff members who participate in this conference.

The stimulating experience gained from working under supervisors with different points of view helps the student-counselor in this training laboratory to acquire a broad point of view and to avoid becoming so attached to any one system of counseling or of psychology that he will fail to make good use of the helpful principles of others. Then, too, through this apprentice-training

¹ DUGAN and WRENN, *op. cit.*, p. 58.

² E. McD. LLOYD-JONES, "Counseling and Present-day Problems," *Teachers College Record*, 46:1-8, October, 1934; "Preparation for Psychological Counseling," *Teachers College Record*, 40:71-79, October, 1938; P. M. SYMONDS, "A Method of Training Clinical Psychologists for Child Guidance," *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, 7:41-45, January-February, 1943.

program students not only acquire theoretical knowledge and skill in counseling but also gain increased insight and understanding with respect to themselves as well as others, release from personal fears and inadequacies, and the ability to establish wholesome, friendly relations with their clients.

Schools that follow the plan of providing counseling through specialists and through selected, trained teacher-counselors often adopt in their inservice education program a modified form of the internship plan of the colleges. The program is usually organized around the case conference, and its effectiveness is largely dependent upon the type of leadership and supervision provided.

Administrators who make use of such a plan find that they cannot place too much emphasis upon the selective process. They seek counselors among the teachers who have the desired background and educational preparation, to whom pupils tend to gravitate voluntarily, and who have shown an interest in personnel work. An expression of interest, however, is not considered sufficient; for some teachers with little understanding of the complex problems encountered by counselors or of the difficulty of the work wish to become counselors chiefly because they think that these workers have the easy tasks. To prevent this type of teacher from becoming a counselor, one high-school principal seeks evidence of the teacher's expressed interest through information concerning summer courses taken voluntarily in personnel work or related subjects,¹ concerning his participation in nonteaching school activities, and concerning initiative and ingenuity displayed in his class- and home-room work. Such evidence provides a much better basis for selection than that given by a declaration of interest or of a desire to take part in a counseling program.

This type of counseling program—counseling by selected, trained teachers—is the plan advocated in certain thoughtful proposals for postwar education. For example, the Educational Policies Commission² in its proposal recognizes the importance of the counseling done by teachers in class and through informal

¹ CLIFFORD FROELICH, "Fargo Selects and Trains Teachers for Individual Guidance," *Clearing House*, 17:290-293, January, 1943.

² Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth* (Washington, D.C.: National Educational Association, 1944), 421 pp.

conversations with students; but it considers counseling most effective when it is made the responsibility of selected teachers who have the desired personal qualifications and who are willing to take the necessary training.

PRESENT PROVISION FOR TRAINED COUNSELORS SERIOUSLY INADEQUATE

Descriptive accounts of school practices and survey reports show that definite progress is being made by some high schools toward improved provision for counseling. For example, the most recent of the three survey studies made by Cunliffe in New Jersey shows an especially marked increase in the number of counselors during the 10-year period from 1930 to 1940.¹ This increase is encouraging and significant.

Unfortunately, the situation painted by the survey studies of the U.S. Office of Education is not so encouraging for the nation as a whole. The report for 1937-1938 showed an approximate average of 900 pupils per counselor.² In 1942 the average increased to about 1,000 pupils per counselor.³ Because the data were not taken in the same way each time, the findings of the two studies are not strictly comparable. There is some evidence that the 1942 figures may indicate a slight increase rather than a decrease in the number of counselors provided. Even so, they do not indicate, however, that the situation had improved very much during the 4-year period following the first study. Nor does one have to ponder long over the words "nine hundred pupils per counselor" to realize how very little counseling is being offered to high-school pupils today.

It is repeatedly emphasized in the literature that counseling is the heart and the core of the personnel program, that it is absolutely essential in order to round out the total program of services. In 1927 Kitson warned that vocational guidance is not a job for the amateur but is a distinct profession as independent as

¹ R. B. CUNLIFFE, *Guidance Practice in New Jersey* (New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University, 1942), p. 7.

² W. J. GREENLEAF and R. E. BREWSTER, *Public High Schools Having Counselors and Guidance Officers* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1939), 40 pp.

³ W. J. GREENLEAF, "Guidance in Public High Schools," *Occupations*, 21:599-604, April, 1943.

are the professions of law and medicine.¹ In 1937 Cowley stated that "to be effective counseling must be deeply rooted in scientific techniques and the scientific point of view."² In the same year Williamson and Darley declared that the new developments in personnel work were forcing the "professionalization of the guidance worker in the best sense of the term."³ But in 1942 reports of the U.S. Office of Education showed that little progress had been made toward professionalization through provision for workers with the scientific point of view and with skill in the scientific techniques. With only 27 per cent of the 25,467 high schools employing counselors on at least a part-time basis (2 per cent with full-time counselors and 3 per cent with half-time counselors), counseling was still primarily the job of the amateur.

The pupils do not approve this situation any more than do the authorities on personnel work. More than 2,000 seniors evaluated the personnel work of the high schools in one city. The investigators reported that the pupils' comments on counseling "seem the most valuable and show the greatest thought."⁴ The pupils found the most important needs to be more time for counselors to counsel, fewer students for each one to counsel, and more "expert advice, not the fumbling variety." These students stressed the fact that more time was needed for counseling so that the counselors might have the opportunity to become better acquainted with the students. Clearly, these students do not consider their relations with the counselors to be sufficiently personal to be satisfactory; nor do they consider the counselors sufficiently well trained to give the expert help needed. It is significant that the comments of these high-school seniors parallel the best advice of the guidance authorities. When authorities and students can perceive the counseling needs so clearly, it is strange that school-board members and other school authorities can continue to be so blind as not to see and to provide for them.

¹ Quoted in J. M. Brewer, *History of Vocational Guidance* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1942), p. 88.

² COWLEY, *op. cit.*, p. 218.

³ WILLIAMSON and DARLEY, *op. cit.*, p. xii.

⁴ C. N. CHRISTENSEN, "Students Vote for More Guidance," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, 13:353-357, November, 1938.

CHAPTER VII

SOCIALIZING THE INDIVIDUAL: STUDENT ACTIVITIES

Personnel work is commonly interpreted as work directed toward the individualization of education. It is also work directed toward the socialization of individuals. A need for work in behalf of individualized education was created by the schools' adoption of the mass-production methods of industry and by overconcern for the teaching of subjects. A need for work directed toward assisting students to achieve socialization was created by acceptance on the part of some educators of the false assumption of naturalism that the social is implicit in the natural and that the social, inherent in the germ of human nature, will develop of its own accord if left free to do so. Against these obstacles to optimal development of the individual—an overconcern for subject matter and a laissez-faire attitude toward socialization—personnel work has had to strive earnestly and continuously.

In personnel work, socialization is not a term narrowly conceived. Personnel workers accept a broad interpretation that includes the interpretation of Dewey—deepening and broadening the range of social contact and intercourse and developing social sensitivity and cooperative attitudes—and the interpretation of Judd—transforming the student as far as possible into a being able and willing to conform to the best social patterns of thought and behavior. Personnel workers also accept an interpretation of socialization emphasized by the Neo-Scholasticists—molding character in accordance with an ideal.

According to Judd, "being socialized is certainly advantageous as contrasted with being in a state of clumsy inability to get on with one's fellows."¹ High-school students, too, consider being socialized advantageous and frequently express a strong desire for assistance in achieving this status. Through

¹ C. H. JUDD, *Educational Psychology* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1939), p. 425.

their teachers the writer asked some thousand boys and girls at the beginning of their senior high-school careers what three things they most wanted to get out of high school. The answers of these students, enrolled in different high schools throughout the country, rural and urban, public and private, in the South, North, and East, were very much the same, regardless of size, location, or type of school. As already revealed in a number of other studies, the two things desired most frequently by high-school students are to learn how to select and to prepare for a vocation and to learn how to get along with people. Some of the answers concerning the latter desire are not unlike Judd's statement:

I would like to get an education in social life. How to conduct myself when taking a girl to a dance. In general not to be clumsy when I am out with a girl or with a group of both sexes.

I'd like to learn a lot about getting along with others so that I will be able to avoid a lot of difficulty later on.

How to get along with people my own age.

How to get along with all people.

I want to learn how best to get on with people, things like learning not to get nasty, not to boss, etc. I don't know whether I will be able to learn this just in high school, but I hope to get a good start.

How to be with and live with people.

An ability to understand all types of people and to be able to get along in any community.

Training how to live with others and in life in general.

A broad outlook on life with a feeling of responsibility and respect for my duties and the people around me so that I may be a worthy citizen in our democracy.

The desire to become socialized is expressed in hundreds of different ways by these students; but the idea expressed is always the same—a desire to understand others and to get along with others, to know the right thing to do and how to do it, and to understand and to perform well one's role in our society.

The students feel that they are not ready to take their places in adult social life and wish assistance in attaining this readiness. And readiness here, as in the case of all other kinds of readiness, depends upon more than mere freedom to grow. In attaining readiness for adult social participation (as in attaining readiness for reading), guidance, stimulation, and basic training are essen-

tial in both the preparatory stages and in the process of acquiring the needed skills. Readiness is not a function of inner growth alone. It is also a function of previous experiences, of methods of learning, of purposes, attitudes, and interests. Social readiness is no exception to this rule, for the social is not inherent in the natural.

The end and function of socialization is the development of individual personalities that are socially integrated. The development of such a socially integrated personality consists in achieving right relations with one's fellows and in acquiring the ability to fit into our extensive, complex system of cooperative living. This development can take place only under the influence of associated living and through participation in the activities of the groups of which one is a member.

To help students to become socialized, personnel workers make use of two kinds of group work:—student activities, usually described as extracurricular, and more formal groups, organized primarily for instructional purposes and often described as group guidance.

I. THEY COME IN DIFFERENT VARIETIES

Student activities may take many different forms—clubs (recreational, service, and academic), policy-making and governing groups, aesthetic-appreciation and expression groups, physical activities, religious activities, and the like. At times these may be more teacher activities than student activities. They are teacher activities when they are provided to serve faculty needs and purposes rather than student needs and purposes. And, unfortunately, there are times when student needs and purposes are exploited to serve less important faculty needs and purposes. An activity initiated by a teacher may become a student activity. An activity initiated by students may be so rigidly regulated and controlled by school authorities that it never becomes more than a faculty activity. And one instigated and organized by students and teachers together may develop into either a student or a faculty activity.

A teacher wants to organize a Latin club in order to do outside the class that which apparently she does not know how to do in the class—make Latin interesting and in this way recruit students for a declining subject. A group of students want to organize

a club in order to have fun and to learn how to get along with people their own age. But they know that, in order to secure permission for organizing the club, they must show that they have a useful purpose in view. They also know that an interest in Latin will sound more useful than having fun. This teacher and these students get together. A Latin club is organized.

This club becomes a student activity. With the teacher's help the students cooperatively plan and carry out activities organized around that which is at first no more than a perfunctory interest in Latin but which soon becomes a genuine interest. The teacher discovers that wants and traits as well as interests may motivate learning and that the desire for fun and the trait of sociability can contribute to the development of an interest in a subject. The students discover that while engaged in an activity, undertaken primarily because it is in keeping with their stated purpose, they can have fun and can learn how to get along with their fellows.

Dorothy, thumbing through library books to find out just what those Romans did have in the way of music at their banquets, grins as she remembers how the other club members had screamed with laughter when she suggested that at the Roman banquet they have only the "blues" for music. Three months ago she would have flushed angrily at the memory and would have bitten her lips, still hurt because the kids had made fun of her. Now she grins because she knows that they were not ridiculing her, that they were only laughing at her. In her language there is a big difference between these two acts. She has discovered that they are "a swell bunch of crazy kids." She likes them, and they like her. She pauses to turn back to a previous page and makes a note of the chapter number for Sue, who is chairman of the food committee. Dorothy is learning fast how to get along with people of her own age or of any age. Three months ago she would not have made the note for Sue. She would have taken care to say nothing about the chapter on food customs. She would even have hoped that Sue would not find out about the book so that Sue's committee might not do a better job than her own.

The night of the banquet as the students stroll around trying to keep legs and robes untangled and wreaths from slipping over both eyes at once and later at table as they giggle over their lack of grace in eating without knives and forks, they comment

enthusiastically to any teacher within hearing about how much they are learning about the ways of Roman men and women. That they are also learning much about the ways of American girls and boys both they and the teachers know, and both are glad that they are finding fun in the learning.

This Latin club became a student activity because the students found that it was to be their club. The teacher helped them when they needed her, but they were the ones who carried out the activity. It required much studying, thinking, and planning, and a great deal of work on their part; but it was fun. Now they must find something else to do, something more interesting and, perhaps, more difficult, something like a Roman circus. That will mean more reading and planning and much harder work, but it may also mean more fun.

Latin clubs do not always become student activities. If the students attend meetings because by so doing they can add extra points to class marks; if they undertake activities selected and planned by a teacher and carried out according to his ideas and instructions instead of activities cooperatively selected, controlled, and directed by all concerned; if activities are focused upon acquiring facts and knowledge about a subject instead of upon the all-round growth of boys and girls; if conformity to high standards and uniformity in production are expected from all members instead of variability in results in accordance with variability in members, the Latin club is not a student activity. It may be called a school club, perhaps.

In student activities, as in other phases of personnel work, there are levels of work in terms of quality. The level is usually determined by the motive behind provision for the activity and the quality of adult leadership provided. At the most superficial levels student activities are provided in order to give students an opportunity to work off the exuberance of youth, to keep them in line, to make school life somewhat less boring, or to give a democratic tinge to an otherwise authoritarian atmosphere by permitting students a small measure of participation in school life. These are not the positive, constructive purposes emphasized for student activities in personnel work.

Inadequacy of leaders—inadequacy in number and in quality—will lower the quality of student group work. The leader, inadequate in quality, is often poorly trained and at times emo-

tionally insecure. The inadequate, poorly trained leader has little understanding of the group process, of the meaning of socialization, and of the ways in which it is achieved. He overemphasizes static goals, competition, and comparative achievement. Insensitive to the underlying needs of group members, he is more concerned for a fine public showing than for the growth of individual members. He is excessively critical and overmanages, or he permits unguided freedom. He does not see the advantages of natural groups over formal, forced organizations. In programs and methods he places the emphasis upon the traditional rather than upon the functional. He resists the admission of members who are not already fairly well socialized. His group is all right for students who know how to get along with almost any kind of person.

A leader may be inadequate for reasons of personality. He may be too much of the aggressive, ambitious, managerial type. The ambitious leader often serves as faculty sponsor of a student group mainly in order to show that he is interested in young people and to strengthen thereby his chances for a desired promotion. Or he may organize and sponsor a group because it provides an opportunity for him to demonstrate his special skills and great "leadership ability."

Other teachers may devote much time and energy to student groups, not, as they would say, for reasons of self-aggrandizement, but for reasons of duty. They work hard because they have high standards and are constantly trying to improve. Expressing their tensions and anxieties in a perfectionist attitude, these maladjusted leaders work night and day so that their groups will have the very best activity programs in the school. They do not take life easy and let things ride. They drive both themselves and the students toward ever higher achievement of ever higher goals. And to be sure that the goals are truly high ones, they select them themselves. On time and overtime they earnestly work, leaving nothing to chance—or to students—because they are not willing to be like some of their less conscientious coworkers who do not have their strong feeling of responsibility—or insecurity. In the student groups, directed by such leaders, there will be much activity on the part of students and even more on the part of the leaders. Neither type of activity may be of the desired variety.

Activities of a finer variety are provided when they are directed toward positive, constructive purposes in terms of individual growth and social welfare. Schools that recognize and seek the guidance values to be found in student group work—developmental, diagnostic, and therapeutic values—do not provide student activities because of their value as safety valves and interest-arousers or because of their publicity value. They provide them because through them they can offer their students a laboratory of social reality in which they may learn and practice the skills of cooperative living. These schools maintain student activities, not only because of their contributions to the smooth running of a school, but also, and more, because of their contributions to students—contributions to individual development and social adjustment—and because of their contributions to society—the development of more useful and responsible citizens through experiences in democratic group living.

In activities at this level the emphasis is not upon fine public performance but upon helping students to learn how to live, to work, and to play with others. The sponsor acts as a guide who stands ready to help but not ready to impose his goals and needs upon the group. He does not believe it necessary that the students be working every possible moment at some useful activity in order to “improve each shining hour.” In his group, students of unequal ability can find a place. The timid and submissive as well as the aggressive student finds the situation a comfortable and a pleasant one. This leader is interested in helping with activities that are good for particular participants as well as with those that are good for students in general. And for the good of all members of all groups he seeks diminution of group jealousies, competitions, and feuds. He can do this because he feels no pressing need to be known as the leader of the best group.

Students wish to participate in interesting activities for the sake of fellowship and fun. They also wish to participate in important, socially significant activities for the sake of service. To students the finest variety of activity is not the activity provided mainly in order to give them something interesting to do. It is the activity that needs to be done, that is socially worthwhile, that affords them an opportunity to make some genuinely useful contribution to the society in which they live. They find artificial and imitative the school program which does not include

this type of activity. They accept the imitations; and, to please their elders, they even pretend to be contented with them. But the thoughts of Sally and Cora of *Within This Present* are the thoughts of many a high-school student:

If you were wise, they thought, you obeyed the rules . . . and naturally you had lots of Broadmoor-on-Hudson spirit and went in for the school activities and tried out for the hockey team in the autumn and the basket-ball team in the spring . . . and for the school glee club and the school play and the school magazine . . . in the winter months. But not even Sally and Cora ever really believed that school had anything to do with life. Not with life, at any rate, as it was lived in Lakewood. . . . These interests and preoccupations had nothing to do with the world outside the ivy-clad quad. The world outside was indifferent to them and in the ivy-clad quad the world outside simply ceased to exist. . . . You emerged from that quad as the convict from his cell, the butterfly from its cocoon.¹

Well-brought-up young people accept the situation and make the best of it. To avoid becoming too restless, many keep busy with sororities and fraternities. Others find different ways of keeping occupied. They, too, may have organizations, sometimes called "gangs." And the adults shake their heads, sad because of this terrific waste of energy. They discourage this exhaustion of vitality in unimportant or undesirable organizations, but they do not encourage youth organizations for better purposes. Such organizations can be dangerous, for they may fall into the hands of radical leaders. (That this possibility is strengthened by their own uncooperative attitude or even hostility the adults, however, fail to see.) Besides, young people should not be concerning themselves with social problems anyway. Without experience how can they think intelligently about them? And does it not place too heavy an emotional strain on youth to permit them to try to cope with the serious things of life? There will be time enough for all that when they are grown-up. "And when," youth ask, "will that be?" During wartimes the answer, perhaps, is "seventeen or eighteen"; at other times—well, nobody really knows exactly, but at least not until they finish high school.

¹ MARGARET A. BARNES, *Within This Present* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1933), pp. 64-65.

There are schools that believe that young people need not wait until they finish high school to take part in socially worthwhile activities. To bridge the gap between school and society, these schools capitalize the resources of their communities and make community activities school activities. As a result, students participate in realistic, not imitative, activities.

Also, as a result both school and community are made better. In one community the students staged a victory parade when they heard the announcement of approval received for a government low-cost housing unit in the neighborhood.¹ They shared enthusiastically in the celebration as they had shared wholeheartedly in the months of hard work preceding the victory. In a Tennessee farm community, living became more comfortable for old and young alike after high-school students made mosquito control a student activity. A rural village in North Carolina is a more pleasant place in which to live since the high-school students made beautification of homes and of school and church grounds their extracurricular activity. The citizens of a Michigan town learned a great deal about their community, its strong points and its shortcomings, when high-school students decided that making community surveys was a useful school activity. In one section of a California city Halloween changed from a night of vandalism to one of pleasure after students joined with adult clubs in planning Halloween programs that would interest persons of all ages.

Throughout the nation, high schools are attempting to provide students an opportunity to participate in adult economic life through work experience in the community. Some schools believe that all students should have an opportunity to participate in both service and vocational activities. There is some disagreement concerning whether the vocational experience should be in paid or unpaid work, but there is strong agreement

¹ For these and other illustrations of school-community activities see Educational Policies Commission, *Learning the Ways of Democracy* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1940), 486 pp.; Samuel Everett, editor, *The Community School* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1938), 487 pp.; North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, *General Education in the American High School* (Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1942), 319 pp.; *Toward a New Curriculum: Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Curriculum Development of the National Education Association*, 1944, 191 pp.

that any activity engaged in by the student for either vocational or service reasons must be socially defensible and socially significant.

If participation in community activities means for students no more than doing what they are told to do and in the way that they are told by some adult, then these activities are no more realistic and no better than are some much-criticized school activities. The students must have a share in the planning as well as in the work, not merely because they need this educational experience, but because they have valuable contributions to offer through their participation. They bring new insights, new vision, and new courage. Through their fresh viewpoints and vigorous interests they give new meaning and new direction to old activities. Unhampered by rigid preconceptions and fixed habits of conservatism, they see possibilities and potentials not seen by the older participants. Their healthy skepticism regarding the impossible and their faith in themselves and their elders make these elders rethink their objectives, reevaluate their plans, and consider attempting to do what they earlier considered impossible. The elders may discover that they are not able to match youth's energy; but in faith, courage, and willingness to sacrifice they soon find themselves youth's equals. And soon with youth they find themselves accomplishing the too difficult and doing the impossible.

Working alongside youth, adults grow younger. Working alongside adults in community activities, youth once more have an opportunity to learn what youth once learned through the household activities. They learn to become mature adult persons by working cooperatively and responsibly with adults. In planning, executing, and appraising this work with adults, youth learn adult ways of thinking and acting. And adults learn to understand better and to appreciate more youth's ways of thinking and acting. The two generations, pulled apart by many conditions in our modern industrialized life, move closer as they engage in common activities undertaken together because of common interests and common purposes.

II. SOME OF THE IMPORTANT VALUES

The extent to which the potential values of student activities are realized will depend in a large measure upon the adult leader.

Success in group work, like success in counseling, is determined by a worker's understanding of the process and by his skill in special techniques. The leader trained in the techniques of group work is the one most likely to succeed in helping students to use their experiences in group activities as aids in achieving certain important objectives: individual development, social adjustment, skill in democratic living, and ethical character.

1. Individual development. One of the basic personality needs of all adolescents is that of achieving selfhood, or individuality, or, in the language of some mental hygienists, the need to maintain status. Selfhood, or individuality, is achieved through social contacts. It is a social product, for the very characteristic of selfhood consists in being able to think of oneself in terms of what one knows of others and to think of others in terms of what one knows of oneself.

It is lack of this knowledge concerning self and others that makes young people feel so confused concerning their respective roles as boys and girls. The school can, and should, help students dissolve these feelings of confusion and bewilderment by providing an opportunity for them to participate with other boys and girls in interesting group activities. Such group experiences help the young person to discover his role and to become intelligent in its use. And these experiences have a lifetime value, for young people who discover their roles as boys and girls and who can play their roles with poise because of a feeling of their "belongingness" are able in due course of time to discover and to play creditably their respective roles as men and women.

Students do not achieve satisfying feelings of status without first acquiring feelings of security and adequacy. A student acquires increased self-respect and comfortable feelings of security because of his feelings of belonging when he finds a group in which he is accepted, to which he can make some contribution, and which needs and values his contribution. As his personal relationships with the other group members grow stronger and more satisfying, these feelings of security and adequacy also increase. The student comes to believe that he is a worth-while person in good standing with the group because he knows that he is liked, wanted, and needed by the other members.

The adolescent needs to achieve emotional maturity. Partici-

pation in student activities offers him valuable aid in developing emotional balance and restraint. Social expectancy causes him to modify or even to turn away from attitudes of aggressiveness, hostility, egocentricity, and lack of consideration for others. To maintain status, the student finds that he must conform to certain moral codes and customs, that he must sacrifice personal intimate interests for others more widely accepted. He learns that, to continue to be accepted, he must be tolerant of the likes and dislikes of other persons; that if he ridicules, he must expect ridicule in return. Love begets love is an old rule, but each generation must learn it anew.

The student learns to make choices and decisions of an emotional nature and to accept the consequences of these decisions. He must weigh values against values. When, for instance, loyalty outweighs popularity, he sticks to an underdog friend and risks the scorn of the group.

Valid value concepts are essential to emotional maturity. The group leader should know the attitudes and the values that are being fostered through the activities of his group. He should know whether they are primarily such values as "getting ahead of the other fellow," beating another club's record, raising more money in order to have the best furnished clubroom, putting on the best show of the year, and having more members than ever before. Determination to succeed is certainly a desired trait; but ethical, aesthetic, social, and cultural insights are also important desiderata. If success in terms of being first, best, or always at the top becomes for any member the major objective and is made the symbol of all that is good in life, that member's personality development is in serious danger of stagnating at a socially immature level.

The development of desirable traits—initiative, trustworthiness, cooperativeness, doing one's share, accepting responsibility, and the like—contribute to the development of emotional maturity by requiring the individual to draw upon his emotional resources. As Kilpatrick expresses it, "traits call out the resources, the resources support and strengthen the traits."¹ To help students attain emotional growth through development

¹ W. H. KILPATRICK, "Tapping Our Human Resources," in E. O. Melby, editor, *Mobilizing Educational Resources* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1943), p. 189.

of desirable traits, schools must offer them guided experiences in group participation so that they may progress from dealing with less difficult situations to dealing with more difficult ones, from making under guidance less important decisions and assuming minor responsibilities to making independently more important decisions and assuming major responsibilities.

The emotionally healthy individual is able to accept his limitations and to select goals in line with his real abilities. One of the major influences of personality formation, Slavson believes,¹ is the disparity between what one is and what one would like to be. By helping a student to bring into alignment his ego ideal and his real self, group work contributes to personality development. In most class and home situations the ideals are set by adults, and the inadequacies and the inferiorities of the younger members are clearly revealed. In the voluntary-group situation, however, the ideals are set by the members and are not so high as those of the classroom. Members are accepted, each for his own worth, and special abilities are recognized. Feeling secure because of acceptance by the group, the student finds it easier to see his limitations, to accept them gracefully, and to bring his ideals more in line with them. If he is not able to do this and the disparity between ego status and ego ideal becomes too great for him to feel secure concerning personal worth, feelings of inadequacy and guilt may result and find expression in undesirable behavior, such as bullying, withdrawal, rebelliousness, and even delinquency.

2. Social development. To help students achieve good social adjustment, the school must supply an environment that facilitates social contacts and must provide good leaders to help students acquire the techniques needed for making the experiences in socialization successful ones. Moreover, there must be activities of sufficient variety to afford all students an opportunity to develop the leisure-time interests, the skills, and the habits that aid social adaptability. In the words of Coyle, such activities should serve as "laboratories of human relations" and "as training schools for community living in a democracy."²

¹ S. R. SLAVSON, *Character Education in a Democracy* (New York: Association Press, 1939), pp. 157-158.

² G. L. COYLE, *Studies in Group Behavior* (New York: Association Press, 1937), p. 2.

Some persons interpret education for social adjustment too narrowly, placing the emphasis upon acquisition of good manners, poise, and knowledge of social usage. This situation is illustrated in one investigation of the social competence of high-school students. Social competence was defined broadly; but it was measured almost entirely in terms of knowledge of social usage.¹ While such matters are important, they should not be made the main objective. Schools should not, as Strang warns,² risk emphasizing sham values by focusing the students' attention on social convention to be employed primarily as means for impressing and influencing people. Nor should they, as Lloyd-Jones cautions,³ attempt to conventionalize the social life of students or to impose a social style not in keeping with the time and the custom of the majority of the group members.

Most authorities recognize the importance of the remedial and therapeutic values of group activities; but some, as Allen,⁴ believe that in school group work the interest of both the individual and the group demands that the emphasis be upon the developmental rather than upon the remedial values. Others, however, agree with Williamson that any activity program is of limited usefulness which does not provide experiences for the socially maladjusted as well as for the adjusted student.⁵ Nevertheless, because of lack of training the average sponsor of student activities can be of assistance to only the students who are fairly well adjusted. Only the trained worker should attempt group therapy with serious cases of social maladjustment. Few schools, unfortunately, have such workers.

Although the use of group work for purposes of therapy may be the function of only the specially trained worker, its use for prevention is the function of all personnel workers. In student

¹ J. R. LEEVY, "Social Competence of High School Youth," *School Review*, 51:342-347, June, 1943.

² RUTH STRANG, *Group Activities in College and Secondary School* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1941), p. 20.

³ ESTHER LLOYD-JONES, *Social Competence and College Students* (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1940), p. 27.

⁴ R. D. ALLEN and M. E. BENNETT, "Guidance through Group Activities," *Thirty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, Part I, 1938, pp. 145-146.

⁵ E. G. WILLIAMSON, *How to Counsel Students* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1939), p. 201.

activities they find a fruitful source of aid for the prevention and the correction of social maladjustment; for the reeducation of the rejected, the misfit, and the egocentric student. They discover, as Cox and Duff point out,¹ the miraculous effects of a few small victories on the potential delinquent and find that satisfying group experiences often make his antisocial behavior unnecessary.

Schools, asserts Lloyd-Jones,² contribute to the diminution of delinquency when they help to offset the undesirable factors in degraded home and neighborhood situations by providing adequate recreational facilities and skillful direction. Testimony of the truth of this assertion is furnished by the factual material contained in at least one publication of the National Recreation Association³ and in the reports of some national committees on juvenile delinquency.⁴ Additional evidence is supplied by a number of research studies. One interesting study, reported by Porterfield⁵, disclosed that the adolescent-period delinquencies of a group of college students were apparently as serious as were the delinquencies of a group of children in the courts. The differential court appearance and the "after careers" of the two groups were largely explained by the narrow range of social participation, the progressive segregation, and the cumulative frustrations to which the children in the courts had been subjected.

However, of the many factors important in the evolution of the personality of the delinquent, no one factor may be considered peculiar to the delinquent. Many children endure loneliness, frustration, and cruelty without becoming delinquents. But the general personality of the delinquent has been found to be characterized by immaturity, egocentricity, and inability

¹ P. W. L. COX and J. C. DUFF, *Guidance by the Classroom Teacher* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1941), p. 455.

² ESTHER LLOYD-JONES, "Education to Diminish Delinquency," *Teachers College Record*, 45:87, November, 1943.

³ VIRGINIA MUSSELMAN, *Teen Trouble: What Recreation Can Do about It* (New York: National Recreation Association, 1943), 24 pp.

⁴ For summaries of some of these reports see "Juvenile Delinquency: A Challenge to Concerted Action Now and After the War," *Survey Midmonthly*, 40:69-95, March, 1944; "Social Hygiene in Wartime, X: The Attack on Juvenile Delinquency," *Journal of Social Hygiene*, 29:485-532, November, 1943.

⁵ A. L. PORTERFIELD, "Delinquency and Its Outcome in Court and College," *American Journal of Sociology*, 49:199-208, November, 1943.

to establish emotional relationships with others.¹ And these are not the personality characteristics commonly fostered through participation in interesting group activities.

Because the socially maladjusted student has already demonstrated inability to associate with others, it is useless, as Williamson says,² to advise him to go to parties and to join clubs. This type of student needs the individual help of a specialist in order that he may gain insight into his problem and acquire the understandings, skills, and techniques needed in making a better adjustment. At times, a change of environment is recommended in the treatment of the maladjusted individual. Participation in a group, Strang suggests,³ may offer him the new environment needed. A student, for example, who is handicapped by emotional disturbances created by his having to compete at home or at school with others of greater ability, may be able to recover his self-esteem in a noncompetitive group. The therapeutic value of the experience is probably proportional to the opportunity provided for the student to develop his creative capacities and to gain release from tensions and anxieties by losing himself in some absorbing group activity.

3. Training for democratic living. With the decline of an individualistic social order and the development of a more cooperative society, group work becomes an important factor in education. Although the schools alone cannot overcome the influence of the large competitive society and transform the competitive drive into "mutualistic impulse," they can, as Slavson states, help students "to discover at least intellectually the superiority of co-operation and group effort over selfishness and personal ambition."⁴

Strang emphasizes the value of group work for providing students "experience with democratic contacts, on a humane basis,"⁵ essential to the success of educational efforts directed toward bridging the gap between democracy as an ideal and

¹ L. G. LOWREY, "Delinquent and Criminal Personalities," in J. McV. Hunt, editor, *Personality and the Behavior Disorders* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1944), Vol. II, pp. 794-821.

² WILLIAMSON, *op. cit.*, p. 200.

³ STRANG, *op. cit.*, p. 9.

⁴ SLAVSON, *op. cit.*, p. 153.

⁵ STRANG, *op. cit.*, p. 1.

democracy as a reality. Through participation in democratic groups students gain experiences in initiating and executing plans, in facing difficulties, in accepting and fulfilling obligations, in distributing responsibility, and in creating morale.¹ Such experiences help students to understand other people better; to learn to tolerate points of view different from theirs; and to respect the feelings, attitudes, and opinions of other persons. They help students to develop and to exercise the qualities needed in citizens of a democracy—leadership, initiative, intelligent obedience, and cooperation.

To become training grounds for democracy, activities must be truly democratic, not democratic in form only; they must furnish students the opportunity to build and carry out plans in order to achieve goals selected by them.² Student cooperation in school government provides valuable training for adult citizenship when students are permitted to assume responsibility for increasingly more difficult and more important tasks as they demonstrate growth in self-direction and self-control. Student government provides experiences of little civic value when students are permitted to assume responsibility for only tasks of a monitorial, janitorial, or similar nature. Fortunately, there is a trend toward increased student responsibility in school management. The school reports show that both teachers and students find satisfaction in this procedure.³

Authorities do not advocate relinquishing all control to students, but they do believe that students should be permitted to participate in school management to the full extent of their

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 22.

² Forces outside the schools often prevent schools' allowing students greater freedom in making decisions and choices. One school reports: "In the beginning the 'leisure' course was largely an arts program. This did not square with pupils' ideas of how leisure time is actually spent; so such activities as contract bridge, social dancing, and motion picture appreciation were introduced. These aroused such a storm of protest in the community that the whole 'leisure' program had to be abandoned." Progressive Education Association, *Thirty Schools Tell Their Story* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1943), p. 781.

³ Three examples: H. K. Cady, "Hands Off the Student Council," *Clearing House*, 16:15-18, September, 1941; W. J. Hageny, "24 Projects of Our Student Council," *Clearing House*, 16:236-238, December, 1941; Frank Meyer, "Pupils Share in Control of Our Small Junior High," *Clearing House*, 16:87-91, October, 1941.

abilities under careful surveillance. They consider it, however, "easier to liberalize the discipline piecemeal than it is to revoke privileges unwisely accorded too early."¹

The authorities also question the educational soundness of limitations with regard to membership and to holding office. Limited success in one area, such as scholarship, does not, in their opinion, justify depriving a student of the right to achieve civic growth through group activities. They believe that such growth is facilitated by provision for a progression of experiences, by a program "set up in such a way that leadership ability is given a chance to function,"² and by a minimum of supervision so that students may practice thinking things out for themselves. And they do not believe that students will learn to select leaders wisely and to follow them intelligently if teachers try to control the selection of student leaders.

Restrictions upon participation in group work may indicate too much concern for the finished product and too little awareness of the value of the process. A good product is desirable because of its effect on group morale, but at all times it should be held subordinate to the process. Moreover, a poor product may be needed at times to stimulate student growth in self-direction. To limit participation to the more able students in order "to make a good showing" is to deprive the very students who most need the experience of the opportunity for growth through group work.

4. Character education. High schools have always considered ethical character an educational objective. In the past they have sought to attain this objective through preachments, commands, prohibitions, and punishments. The limited effectiveness of such procedures was revealed by the Character Education Inquiry, which disclosed the great discrepancy between a pupil's moral knowledge and his actual moral conduct.³ Findings of these studies and demonstration by other investigators of the

¹ COX and DUFF, *op. cit.*, p. 308.

² ESTHER LLOYD-JONES and MARGARET R. SMITH, *A Student Personnel Program for Higher Education* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1938), p. 125.

³ HUGH HARTSHORNE and M. A. MAY, *Studies in Deceit* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1928), 306 pp.; HUGH HARTSHORNE, M. A. MAY, and J. B. MAILLER, *Studies in Service and Self-control* (New York: The

value of group work for character education are causing school people to think of character education less in terms of words,¹ rewards, and punishments and more in terms of social experience, participation, and human relations.

Social controls and group discipline are a major force in character formation. The strong need for social acceptance and approbation causes the individual to submit to social pressures that force him to some degree of conformity to and consideration of the habits, attitudes, conveniences, and needs of others. To learn the conditions under which social acceptance and approbation are secured, the pupil needs practice in interpersonal relationships in a variety of group situations. He needs an opportunity to establish free, dynamic relations with others in a number of situations in which he may function freely and successfully for the sake of an important objective.

Group activities provide the type of discipline advocated by Dewey and Thorndike. Dewey describes the disciplined person as one trained to consider his actions and to undertake them deliberately and able "to endure in an intelligently chosen course in the face of distraction, confusion, and difficulty."² And Thorndike shows that discipline from work along lines suited to one's interests and abilities outweighs discipline from enduring the disagreeable.³ Clubs, athletics, and other group enterprises permit the student to participate wholeheartedly in interesting activity. In having to persist at a task in spite of difficulties, in

Macmillan Company, 1929), 559 pp.; HUGH HARTSHORNE, M. A. MAY, and F. K. SHUTTLEWORTH, *Studies in the Organization of Character* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930), 503 pp.

¹ An experiment, reported by Rhinehart, constitutes one such demonstration. Under trained leaders, children of 500 families engaged in cooperative group work. A comparison of initial ratings with final ratings showed that the children had gained social development as measured by the number of companions, character growth as measured by assumption of increased responsibility to both self and home, better emotional adjustment, and better home attitudes. J. B. RHINEHART, "Some Effects of a Five-year Developmental Experiment Sponsored by a Private Social Agency in a Public School," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 10:200-205, June, 1942.

² JOHN DEWEY, *Democracy and Education* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1916), p. 151.

³ E. L. THORNDIKE, "The Disciplinary Value of Studies in the Opinion of Students," *Teachers College Record*, 25:143, March, 1924.

having to check childish drives and indulgences and to inhibit egocentric tendencies, in having to cooperate and to get along with others in spite of conflicting interests and ideas, in having to wrestle with a difficult problem without expectation of reward for successful solution, in having to sacrifice immediate goals for more important and more remote ones and to endure discomfort and disappointment in order to achieve a much-desired purpose, the student matures through a process of self-direction and self-discipline and becomes better prepared to deal intelligently with the challenges of adult life.

Lloyd-Jones considers student mores the most important single element, perhaps, in a program designed to develop socially competent and disciplined individuals.¹ Little reference is found in high-school reports of efforts to make use of the social power of mores. Frequent reference is made, however, to the tendency of high-school students to form small, cohesive groups with different and even conflicting standards, especially when the school is large and the students differ greatly in socioeconomic background. Undoubtedly, under intelligent and sympathetic leadership much can be done to develop mores that will serve as controls for members of all groups. This will probably occur more easily in schools in which student participation in school management is a real rather than a pretended affair and in which some strong group has developed that is democratic in practice and engaged in interesting, purposive activity and that includes members from many smaller groups. The Girls' League has been shown to be such an organization, influential in establishing mores conducive to the development of social-minded, responsible school citizens.²

Undesirable mores often disappear upon the removal of undesirable school conditions, such as outmoded rules, which create friction and conflict among student groups and between students and faculty. The mores themselves may need to be changed. Teachers will not, however, be able to modify undesirable mores and to develop more wholesome ones through

¹ LLOYD-JONES, *Social Competence and College Students*, pp. 37-40; LLOYD-JONES and SMITH, *op. cit.*, p. 124.

² S. M. STURTEVANT and ETHEL ROSENBERY, *Practicing the Ways of Democracy through the Girls' League* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1943), 102 pp.

arbitrary regulations. But students may develop higher social norms through interaction in cooperative groups under the direction of a wise, well-balanced leader, skilled in indirect guidance. The wise leader does not attempt to impose specific opinions. Instead, he is concerned for keeping the lines of communication open between all groups so that "the generation of some collective opinion is possible."¹ And, in seeking modification of mores, he does not lose sight of the possible contributions of all groups. He takes care to try to remedy defects without destroying any desirable patterns that may already be present.²

Much attention is given in the literature to the influence of group activities on the formation of ethical character. Some writers stress that ethical character is formed "by doing." Others point out that activity alone is not enough. Hartshorne,³ for one, believes that the resultant character will take on ethical significance in proportion as the activities are true social functions. As already shown, some schools are trying to give student activities significance in terms of social functions through provision for student participation in community activities. Other writers, such as Cox and Duff, consider no conduct ethical conduct unless it is reasoned conduct.⁴ And Sturtevant⁵ and Strang⁶ indicate agreement when they emphasize that participation must be accompanied by evaluation. They believe that a student must have practice in critically appraising his own conduct if he is to develop a social conscience. To obtain this practice, the student needs participation in a variety of group activities that offer him wide experience in making free rational choices between alternative courses of action, in analyzing the results, in relating one experience to others, and in seeing its possible future application.

¹ LLOYD-JONES and SMITH, *op. cit.*, p. 124.

² P. H. FURFEY, "The Group Life of the Adolescent," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, 14:204, December, 1940.

³ HUGH HARTSHORNE, *Character in Human Relations* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932), p. 290.

⁴ COX and DUFF, *op. cit.*, pp. 48-49.

⁵ S. M. STURTEVANT, "Some Questions Regarding the Developing Guidance Movement," *School Review*, 45:354, May, 1937.

⁶ RUTH STRANG, *Pupil Personnel and Guidance* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940), pp. 223, 226.

5. Vocational values. Reference is often made to the vocational values of student activities. Super,¹ however, calls attention to the fact that there has been little research to justify assumptions concerning the diagnostic and training values of these activities.

Some writers find that participation in group activities has a vocational value greater than that of occupational information and tryout experiences. They consider more important to future success the facility gained in establishing good human relationships with others of different abilities, interests, and backgrounds. Calling attention to the common complaint of employers that many college graduates are too incompetent socially to function well vocationally, Lloyd-Jones states that usefulness in a vocational activity may be "as powerfully conditioned by the social attitudes, skills, habits, and knowledge of the individual as it is by his precise technical skill and information."²

III. SHOULD STUDENT ACTIVITIES BE MADE CURRICULAR?

Many values to be achieved through student activities may also be achieved through class activities, especially when the latter are under the direction of a master teacher. Some schools consider the contributions of student activities to personality and social development too great to be limited to students able and willing to remain after school hours in order to take part in them. In these schools student activities often cease to be extra-curricular and become a part of the regular curriculum.

The authorities on personnel work agree that schools should seek through classes and other mediums the values inherent in student activities. They also agree that students should be given an opportunity to participate in student activities during the regular school hours so that all who wish to take part may do so. Many, however, do not agree that the extracurricular should become curricular or that participation in student activities should be made compulsory. To make these activities class activities or to compel students to take part because they are permitted to do so on school time, or for any other reason,

¹ D. E. SUPER, *Dynamics of Vocational Adjustment* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1942), p. 140.

² LLOYD-JONES, *op. cit.*, p. 21.

diminishes the effectiveness of student activities by destroying, or at least curtailing, the spontaneity, close fellowship, life-likeness, and other qualities resulting wholly or in part from their voluntary character.

Because the class is a fabricated, forced organization rather than a natural one, its activities lack much of the color and intimacy of the voluntary-group activity. Also, the class is usually built around adult purposes. When the extracurricular activity is made curricular, it may lose the warm, familiar atmosphere of the small group organized voluntarily by a group of students who wish to explore certain common interests. If traditionalism replaces spontaneity, the goals become static. Furthermore, in the curricular situation the teacher is a more active participant and gives instruction and guidance more directly than in the voluntary-group situation. Participation on the part of the student may become less free because he is no longer able to withdraw from the group when he loses interest or when he has got from the group all that he wants from it or believes that it has to give him. Because the social arrangements surrounding class activities are adult rather than student controlled, pleasing teacher at times motivates behavior as much as or more than wanting to get along with other group members.

The voluntary-group situation allows the student more control over the situation. He feels more free to be himself. With less fear of displeasing authority and with less risk of being criticized by a grownup, he expresses his opinion more freely than he usually does in class. In the voluntary group he asserts himself more readily and shows greater initiative in exploring ideas. He makes suggestions and defends them. He criticizes, accepts, and rejects the ideas of others. He seeks and offers assistance as he attempts with the others to carry out the plans finally agreed upon.

In the voluntary-group situation the welfare of the group does not always have precedence over the welfare of the individual, for the member is better able to protect his own interests. Here the adult leader does not play the principal role; he is more an assistant than an instructor. Goals and standards are determined from within the group and are not imposed from above. Objectives are controlled by the ability and the readiness of the

members to undertake particular tasks and to assume certain responsibilities. Goals and standards do not become static but change with changes in the interests, attitudes, and skills of the group members. Altogether, the voluntary situation with its informal setting, its free and easy interpersonal relationships, and its casual give-and-take influence offers a more dynamic situation for social learning than that found in the average classroom.

To formalize student activities or to control them too closely through compulsory-attendance rules and other administrative regulations is to make dull one of the personnel worker's most useful instruments for socialization.

CHAPTER VIII

SOCIALIZING THE INDIVIDUAL: GROUP GUIDANCE

Schools interested in helping boys and girls solve individual problems common to their age—vocational, personal, social, and others—early learned the value of group guidance. Students were assembled in small and large groups, regularly or occasionally, in classes, in assemblies, and in conferences, to discuss these problems. Although many schools used this group method almost exclusively, it is unlikely that any school considered this method sufficient when used alone. The schools knew that it had to be supplemented by individual aid, but they also knew that to rely upon individual aid alone would be extremely wasteful. The group approach clearly had certain definite advantages in terms of cost and of administrative efficiency.

High schools today continue to use group-guidance methods in helping students to deal with common teen-age problems. Because the method is organized around an instructional rather than a counseling approach, it is not endorsed by all authorities on personnel work. Paterson, Schneider, and Williamson reject it, stating that personnel workers should be the first to abandon group-guidance methods “based upon the naive assumption that teaching can ignore individual differences.”¹ Personnel workers recognize that students have different problems and follow different methods in dealing with common problems. They also know, however, that all students have common needs and consequently face many similar problems and that, in dealing with these problems, students need information and other types of aid that are basically the same for all regardless of their many individual differences. Personnel workers, in general, agree that individual methods are to be preferred to group methods; but with an average of more than 900 students per counselor they believe that they must seek improved personnel work through

¹ D. G. PATERSON, G. G. SCHNEIDER, and E. G. WILLIAMSON, *Student Guidance Techniques* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1938), p. 271.

increased and better planned group work, not through its abandonment.

I. ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF GROUP GUIDANCE

Group guidance is designed not only to impart information needed by all students but also to help students socialize their attitudes, habits, opinions, and judgments and to help them to develop the power of self-direction. To achieve these ends, student activity is encouraged; informal procedures are followed; and the problem-solving approach is stressed. Group guidance, carefully planned and skillfully directed, Bennett believes, helps students to develop "the habit of approaching the study of personal problems of living with the objective, impersonal attitude and the truth-seeking methods of the scientist."¹ Many high-school students may never achieve this desired degree of objectivity toward personal problems; but they are less likely to take a morbid attitude toward them when they discover that problems, believed to be peculiar to them, are common to their age group. Moreover, after students learn what others are doing about certain problems, they are able to approach their solution more objectively and more intelligently.

Students are often able to discuss in a group problems that they find difficult to talk about in private interviews. Making problems catholic desensitizes students and helps them to objectify their difficulties. Talking about a problem then becomes easier. In a "group-guidance class" shy students may overcome feelings of isolation and find courage to verbalize their fears and anxieties even though at first it may be only in a "me too" fashion. As the student gains strength and courage from the group, he attempts more vigorous participation because, in his language, the presence of the others helps to "give him nerve." If the group moves too fast for him or the discussion presses too heavily on his special problem, he finds that he can still keep control of the situation by withdrawing into his own thoughts. He does not find this easy to do in the private interview. In the group, however, the very fact that participation is voluntary lessens the desire to withdraw and improves the quality as well as the quantity of his participation.

¹ M. E. BENNETT, "The Informative Program: Looking to the Adjustive Phase of Guidance," *Occupations*, 12:51, Sec. 2, March, 1934.

Lively group discussions offer students an opportunity to express their anxieties regarding problems and their pent-up feelings, especially hostility, regarding the persons and conditions that, in their opinion, are responsible for their difficulties. Students who need release from such feelings often hesitate to express them because of guilt feelings. They may find, however, not only that the group helps them to verbalize feelings but also that group reinforcement gives them relief from guilt. They note that other students speak freely and are not held bad. Thus, fear of saying what should not be said is dissipated. Once students have said all the negative things that they can think to say about the school or the home, they proceed to tell each other that it really is not such a bad place after all and that teachers or parents are "really swell if you handle them right." And the suggestions offered each other for "handling them right" are psychologically sound more often than not. When they are not sound, a question or two from a naïve, perplexed teacher-counselor serves to call attention to their weakness. Furthermore, this ventilation of feeling through group discussion not only brings release of tensions but also helps to clarify the real issues confronting the group.

In addition to the instructional and therapeutic values, the group approach has other important aspects. It provides students an opportunity to benefit by the experiences of their peers. It helps to build up a sense of group responsibility. And it increases the usefulness of the personnel worker through improved and extended rapport with the student group.

Students often accept from fellow students ideas and suggestions, earlier offered by adults and rejected by the students. The fact that the idea emanates from a peer rather than from an authoritative source makes it more acceptable to some students for emotional reasons alone. An illustration: Adjustment to high school is often made difficult by new teaching procedures and by new and higher standards for scholastic work. Solution of the problem may call for new study methods and longer and better planned study periods. Many a personnel worker has discovered that students who arrive at the solution in a group usually carry out the planned course of action better than do students who reach the same conclusion in private interviews with the worker. When the proposed course of action is a group

plan, the students seem more willing to give it a fair trial. Having taken part in the discussion leading to the selection and formulation of a "best plan," the student feels that he must show the others that he has faith in it. Because the idea comes from his peers, the student gives it consideration. Because he helped to develop the idea, he feels responsible for making it work. And he wants the approval of other group members, who, he knows, will see whether he carries on or not.

Thinking, talking, planning, and working together over common problems create in the individual members a sense of group responsibility. When a strong "we" feeling has developed in a group, the members are constantly on the alert to warn each other against errors that they have fallen into through carelessness or inexperience. Frequently, a student suggests at the close of a private interview that perhaps the worker ought to "talk about this someday in class." Upperclassmen, former members of "orientation" groups, may stop at the worker's office to remind her that certain things have been changed since the handbook was published and that she must not forget to tell the "new kids." They may even admonish her not to make the same error with the new students that she made with them in forgetting to give them information very much needed later. Students, too, soon learn that prevention is cheaper than correction and that prevention is the responsibility of all group members concerned for individual welfare.

Most high-school counselors make use of some group-guidance procedure because through it they can early establish working relations with many more students than they could otherwise. The group technique makes it possible for a large number of students to know the worker as a person and to understand his function with respect to them as individual persons. When a worker is known and accepted by the group, much resistance to seeking individual aid is broken down. Consequently, if group guidance is effective, one inevitable result is an increase in the demand for individual counseling. Through group work, students not only become better informed concerning the special services available but also become better informed concerning their own need for these services. Better informed concerning the common problems of their age, they become more aware of their special problems and of their responsibility for doing some-

thing about them. More than that, they not only seek counseling for themselves; but they also send troubled friends to the worker. If, for some reason, the friend is reluctant to seek the help needed, the student himself may go to the worker to tell him about the friend and to urge that he do something about the case. If group guidance had no value other than this one of improved student-worker relations, high-school workers would still be wise in refusing to abandon it.

Group guidance helps students to discover that the personnel worker may be of special assistance to them. It also helps the worker to discover the students in need of special assistance. It gives him an opportunity to detect and to observe students who are showing symptoms of serious maladjustment: the student who seems unable to overcome isolation and continues alone in his perplexity; the student who expresses hostility vehemently and frequently but never seems able to progress to more positive feelings and constructive thinking; the student who cannot gain acceptance with the rest of the group because of overaggression; and other students whose personality problems appear especially severe or numerous. The worker sees that these students are not being served through group procedures and makes provision for the case work needed.

The limitations of the group-guidance method, as in the case of other techniques, may often be traced to limitations in the worker. It may also be due to limitations in the total personnel program. Group guidance has little value unless it is carefully planned in terms of a unified program. For instance, there is little to be gained from making students aware of their need for special assistance if they do not find this assistance available. More harm than good can result from such procedures.

Writers call attention to some serious weaknesses in current practices with respect to group guidance. Because teachers of classes in group guidance fail to make clear the basic concept of the limitations of human capacity, students often gain wrong conceptions of their individual possibilities. This is a serious weakness and one most likely to be found where counseling and group work are not coordinated or where group work is not supplemented by work with the individual. At times it is a dangerous weakness because wrong conceptions concerning individual capacity will increase any neurotic tendencies already present in

a student as a result of contradictory feelings concerning his ability and personal worth.

Students should be helped to understand not only the limitations imposed upon them by nature but also those imposed upon them by the culture. Contact and harmony with reality—two important personality needs—require a knowledge of the imperfections of our culture. This does not, of course, imply an acceptance of such imperfections as right. One such imperfection to be reckoned with is the contradiction that “exists between the alleged freedom of the individual and all his factual limitations.”¹ Students should not be led to believe that endless opportunities are awaiting them in adult life and that these possibilities are open to all who are ambitious and willing to work hard enough to attain them. The majority of students will find their opportunities limited. They will find, says Horney, that “what has been said facetiously of the impossibility of choosing one’s parents can well be extended to life in general—choosing and succeeding in an occupation, choosing ways of recreation, choosing a mate.”² Under such circumstances, an understanding of adult-life opportunities must be accompanied by an understanding of their difficulties and limitations. An understanding of the limitations created by imperfections in nature and by imperfections in society helps to free an individual from tensions created by conflicting feelings of unlimited power and complete helplessness. Thus, making clear the basic concept of limitations helps to decrease neurotic tendencies, whereas failing to make clear this concept helps to increase them.

Another weakness in present practices is the tendency on the part of many schools to concentrate group-guidance help at one level instead of providing it continuously throughout the student’s school career. Two means for correction are now being tried in the schools. One is to provide group-guidance courses at critical points throughout a student’s school years instead of only at the beginning of the high-school years. Another is to make youth’s life-adjustment problems the bases for curriculum revision. There should be little doubt that the second is the more desirable method.

¹ KAREN HORNEY, *The Neurotic Personality of Our Time* (New York: W. W. Norton & Company, Inc., 1937), p. 289.

² *Ibid.*

And, lastly, in some schools the work is concerned too much with the immediate adjustment problems of youth—adjustment to the new school, to new social life, and to new routines. These are important concerns, but youth is also concerned with the problem of successful induction into adult life and with their need to prepare for the roles of homemaker and neighbor as well as for those of citizen and worker. They wish assistance with these adjustment problems, too.

II. GROUP-GUIDANCE PROCEDURES

Various procedures are used in group-guidance work, but all procedures may be grouped under one of two general classifications, class and conference procedures. These procedures are adopted primarily for giving students information concerning common life-adjustment problems, for encouraging them to think and talk about these problems, for acquainting them with sources of aid, and for helping them to make wise, constructive use of these sources. With one exception, every group-guidance method is basically an instructional one. The exception is the group interview, which is more a counseling than an instructional procedure.

1. Group guidance through classes. Three different methods are reported by high schools that use the class procedure. Provision is made for students to receive group guidance with regard to life-adjustment problems through (1) the regular courses, (2) special units given in the regular courses, and/or (3) classes organized especially for group-guidance purposes.

Curriculum based upon life needs. In only a few high schools is the first, the preferred, method followed. In these schools, often called "progressive," two criteria usually determine the contents of the curriculum—the requirements of adult society and the common concerns of youth. It is strange that schools which follow this practice are so few that they stand out among the others as "progressive" or "advanced," for they are doing nothing more extraordinary than adopting criteria long recognized by leaders in educational thought as basic in determining educational aims.

Every carefully formulated and much-publicized statement of educational aims made during this century has stressed the

high school's responsibility for providing an education based upon individual needs and social demands. And usually these statements have been largely a reiteration of the declaration made during the last century by Herbert Spencer who maintained that education should be preparation for complete living; that to be this, it must be based upon the five "leading kinds of activity which constitute human life": (1) maintaining health, (2) earning a living, (3) bringing up a family, (4) maintaining social and political relations, and (5) using leisure time.¹

The Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education in 1918 accepted these life activities as the *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*.² The Commission increased the five to seven by adding the traditional aim of schoolmasters—the fundamental processes—and by making ethical character a separate aim instead of including it under "the rearing and discipline of offspring," where Spencer dealt with it in relation to the general topic of discipline.³ (It may be well to interpolate here that personnel workers continue to accept Spencer's interpretation of discipline as character education.) Despite the great publicity given to the seven cardinal principles and the great stress placed upon the need to accept them as classroom objectives, the traditional objective, the fundamental processes, continues dominant in most high-school curriculums and pushes the life-activity aims almost completely out of the picture. As a result, some special arrangement has to be made for their achievement.

Other well-known statements of educational aims are also based upon Spencer's list. Chapman and Counts accepted the five life activities and also added religion as a separate aim.⁴ Bobbitt subdivided the life activities and gave special attention to languages, thus making the five aims ten.⁵ Since the publication of Bobbitt's list, however, condensation rather than expan-

¹ HERBERT SPENCER, *Education: Intellectual, Moral, and Physical* (London: G. Manwaring, 1861), p. 9.

² *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1918), p. 9.

³ SPENCER, *op. cit.*, pp. 105-143.

⁴ J. C. CHAPMAN and G. S. COUNTS, *Principles of Education* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1924), p. 194.

⁵ JOHN FRANKLIN BOBBITT, *How to Make a Curriculum* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1924), p. 7.

sion has been the rule. The five aims are now usually made four. The objectives listed by the Educational Policies Commission¹—self-realization, human relationships, economic efficiency, and civic responsibility—and by the Progressive Education Association²—personal living, immediate social relationships, social-civic relationships, and economic relationships—are very similar. Spencer's list is more specific than these two lists and for that reason may still be the preferred one.

Although each decade of this century has brought forth some new affirmation of Spencer's statement that education should be preparation for life activities, high-school graduates continue to complain that they must enter into these activities unprepared or so poorly prepared that they feel inadequate to the tasks confronting them. Some schools, however, are trying to correct this situation by ceasing to give almost exclusive attention to one of the cardinal principles and only lip service to the other six. These are the schools which are making the common concerns of youth one criterion for determining curriculum content.

A number of the 30 schools that participated in the Eight-Year Study made the common problems of American youth the heart of their curriculums. In some of these "progressive schools," however, the "adolescent-needs approach" was adopted in words only. Too often preparation for a life activity was made subordinate to learning an academic subject. In one school, for example, the seniors studied "the individual in relation to his family and to himself." Anyone who is only slightly acquainted with high-school seniors knows that few subjects engage their attention more than does this one of education for family life. Did these seniors learn the things that high-school seniors are so eager to learn about family life—not only the skills and the knowledge needed in managing time, energy, money, and the physical aspects of a home but also those needed in carrying on the kind of family life that meets one's personal needs and develops "the kinds of human relations and personali-

¹ Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1938), 157 pp.

² V. T. THAYER and others, *Reorganizing Secondary Education* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1939), pp. 25-51.

ties for which the family primarily exists"?¹ High-school students want to understand the family as a social institution; they also want to know how to institute a family and how to make a successful institution of the new family that they hope to establish. Is this what these seniors learned? The report says:

The angle of the family was studied through *Hamlet* and *The Mill on the Floss*, and through modern novels and drama. During the last half of the year the emphasis shifted from the family to the individual's philosophy, toward the ideals of friendship, love, death, ambition, and happiness. Poetry of all ages, dramas of many countries, essays from Plato to Morley, and a group of modern plays and novels were used as bases for understanding the ideals of others.²

The purpose of this course was to acquaint the students with some of the world's best literature, a good purpose and here apparently well fulfilled. So much of the world's best literature was covered during the half year that there is little likelihood that the emphasis ever shifted for long from literature to the "individual in relation to his family and to himself." The purpose of this course was not to give these seniors education for family life, also a good purpose and one that should not be slighted through such fragmentary treatment. Like other high-school seniors, these students, undoubtedly, wanted to study family relationships in twentieth-century United States of America, not in early nineteenth-century England or medieval Denmark. And they were more interested in birth than in death, in the role of the individual man and woman, in the responsibilities involved in this relationship, and in the preparation that one may make for assuming these responsibilities while one is still a boy or a girl. It is highly doubtful that these seniors will find this study of family life sufficient for their needs when they do enter into the life activity of bringing up a family.

Special units based on life-adjustment needs. Some high schools make provision for group guidance through special units based on life activities. The reports of school practices show that some high schools incorporate this material into the regular

¹ American Association of School Administrators, *Education for Family Life* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1941), p. 125.

² Progressive Education Association, *Thirty Schools Tell Their Story* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1943), pp. 592-593.

classwork through a reorganization of the course to secure integration of the new material with the old. Other schools, however, add the new material as an extra unit and fail to relate it closely to the regular class material. When this occurs, when fusion of group guidance and instruction is not sought, teachers are likely to consider helping students with problems of everyday living undesirable as classwork and may even agree with some writers that it interferes with their major function of teaching the academic subjects.

The special group-guidance class. Many high schools seem unable to break away from a subject-matter curriculum and move toward one based upon the common life experiences. These schools recognize, however, that they do have a responsibility for helping students to prepare for these life experiences. But generally they do not ask the teachers to give guidance and instruction in life-adjustment matters during the time set aside for instruction in subject matter. Instead, they provide a special time for group guidance. This time is usually called a "home-room period" and/or a period for an "orientation," a "personal-management," a "life-problems," or another class of similar title.

Surveys show that the home room is a frequently used medium for group guidance. The surveys also show that, in the main, it is an ineffectual medium. Because all students are assigned to home-room groups, usually all teachers are expected to serve as home-room teachers whether they are qualified or not. Teachers who give instruction in academic subjects are asked to give also guidance concerning life needs. They are not, however, asked to perform the two functions with the same students at the same time; and they are given much less time for performing the second than for the first. Consequently, the second is considered a less important function and is often neglected for better performance of the first.

Under such conditions, the average home room has little chance of being a satisfactory medium for group guidance. The work is usually assigned to the teachers as an extra without their being trained for the work or willing to do it. Lack of understanding and training makes many teachers feel inadequate to the work. Feelings of inadequacy and of insecurity create feelings of resentment; and resentful teachers, like resentful pupils,

seldom put forth much effort in support of a disliked project. Some teachers may try to avoid the new responsibility by converting the guidance period into a study period and may justify this procedure by calling attention to the scholastic records of some home-room members. If because of an administrative decree they must use the period as an "activity period," then they demand to be told what to do and how to do it. The administrator usually appoints a committee to provide assistance through recommended programs. The committee members may soon discover that others have done this work for them, that there are books which contain home-room programs outlined in detail, that through the purchase of one book alone they can supply the teachers with a hundred guidance lessons. Thinking and planning are thus reduced to a minimum for everyone.

When home-room programs are planned according to some such stereotyped lesson plan, the home-room period is not used by students for exploring some purposeful, student-suggested topic, based upon their common concerns. Instead, it is a class rather than a conference period, adult-programed rather than student-programed, and concerned more often than not with some subject uninteresting to the students because it is outside their experiences and inappropriate to their educational level. And students complain that when home-room periods are conducted according to such procedures, they are more often "preached at" than guided.

Unless teachers are trained and willing, the home-room plan is doomed from the start. That many are willing and interested is shown by their enthusiastic reports of home-room plans, projects, and methods. The very titles of the reports—"Putting Home in Home Room," "Guidance through the Homeroom," "Model Homeroom Discussion," "Homeroom Harmony," and "Homeroom Techniques"—show that the teachers are trying earnestly to provide the needed services. Some reports, however, give the impression that, in spite of all the enthusiasm and good intentions of the teachers, not very much of real value is being accomplished. Undoubtedly, more could be accomplished were these teachers given through inservice education the training needed to make their work more effective.

Even when the teacher is trained, willing, and enthusiastic, he has little chance to do the work well in the little time provided.

The home-room situation is still that pictured in Strang's summary of the surveys of home-room conditions:

The length of period covered a range from less than ten to more than seventy minutes, the most usual length being between ten and fifty minutes. The average total weekly time is approximately one and a half hours. The short period is the obvious reason why the scope of activity in many homerooms is restricted to matters of mere routine. The homeroom group usually numbers between thirty and forty students.¹

Under these conditions the best home-room teacher will find it difficult to achieve even a few of the objectives listed by one administrator as the objectives that "ought to be achieved in the home room of the modern secondary school."² The objectives listed include, among other things, educational guidance, orientation to high school, self-analysis, training in study methods, character education, and leisure-time guidance. Teachers of special full-time classes find it difficult to achieve all these objectives; teachers with only 1½ hours a week find it impossible.

The home-room plan succeeds when teachers are selected and trained for the work, when they are given sufficient time to do the work, and when they are assigned functions clearly defined and not so diversified that it is difficult to acquire the knowledge and skill needed for effective performance. When these conditions are met, however, the plan followed is not usually the home-room plan. Instead, group guidance is provided through core courses or through special classes directed by a counselor or some other person trained in personnel work.

According to some survey reports, there is a trend away from the home-room plan. Only 25 per cent of the schools that participated in the California Youth Survey reported "guidance assigned to home room teacher."³ And Cunliffe's 1940 survey of New Jersey schools showed that home-room guidance had

¹ RUTH STRANG, *Group Activities in College and Secondary School* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1941), p. 160.

² G. D. BRANTLEY, "Guidance for the Modern High School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-school Principals*, 23:34, February, 1939.

³ A. E. JONES, "Provision for Guidance in High Schools of California as Revealed by State Youth Study," *California Schools*, 10:193-203, August, 1939.

dropped considerably between 1935 and 1940, whereas the position of counselor had ranked higher each year.¹ These counselors are usually teachers selected and trained to perform the functions previously assigned to home-room teachers.

Unsatisfactory experience with the home-room plan is causing some schools to provide some other medium for group guidance to be used in place of or to supplement the work of the home-room teacher. A common provision is the special guidance class. In response to demands for vocational guidance, many schools early provided special classes for giving students vocational guidance with respect to vocational problems. This class, called usually the "careers course" or the "class in occupations," has become fairly well standardized as to content and method.² In some schools the class has actually become so standardized in terms of traditional class procedures that to the students it is only another subject-matter class. The students find the teachers concerned primarily with imparting information about many specific occupations ranging from agriculture to veterinary medicine rather than "concerned primarily with helping individuals make decisions and choices involved in planning a future and building a career—decisions and choices necessary in effecting satisfactory vocational adjustment."³ When the class is thus standardized, it can no longer be considered a group-guidance procedure.

Today many schools are expanding their programs of special group-guidance classes to include courses in safety, health, mental hygiene, study methods, human relations, and personal

¹ R. B. CUNLIFFE, *Guidance Practice in New Jersey* (New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University, 1942), p. 7.

² Today this course in vocational guidance is often placed in the senior high school rather than, as in the past, in the junior high school. With school attendance lengthened because of raised age for compulsory attendance, because of the unemployment of youth during depression years, and because of increased awareness of the social and economic advantages of providing appropriate education and training for youth until at least age eighteen, there has developed a trend toward making the senior high school rather than the junior high school the principal agent for vocational guidance. W. M. PROCTOR, "Shifts in Methods of Vocational Counseling," *Occupations*, 15:123-126, November, 1936.

³ National Vocational Guidance Association, "The Principles and Practices of Educational and Vocational Guidance," *Occupations*, 15:772, May, 1937.

management and general courses covering problems in several adjustment areas. Some schools have found these courses, especially the last-named types, so valuable that they are making them the bases of core curriculums.

In certain schools, such as the University High School of Oakland, Calif., the history of group guidance is one of growth from home rooms to special group-guidance classes and from special classes to core courses. It is important to note that the schools which show growth from incidental procedures for instruction and group guidance on youth problems to provision through the regular curriculum are also the schools which have strong, effective programs of personnel work. Improvements in the curriculum accompany improvements in personnel work, and vice versa. To repeat the mind-body personel-work-curriculum analogy and to use the words of the parallelist Titchener, a change in one is "accompanied by a corresponding change in the other" because they "are simply two aspects of the same world of experience."¹

Curriculum or personnel work? Some educators insist that personnel workers should return to class teachers certain instructional functions taken over by personnel workers. That group guidance and instruction based on life-adjustment needs is a function of class teachers rather than of the personnel specialists the personnel workers heartily agree. Even if it is classed as a personnel function, it is a personnel function that should be performed by class teachers. It may be a curriculum function and not a personnel function at all; but, first of all, it is an educational function. And if one group of educators cannot or will not assume responsibility for it, another must. Class teachers, however, who fail to assume responsibility for the life-activity aims usually do so because they do not have the needed training, not because they are unwilling. Their professional training has equipped them for instructing students in the fundamental processes of particular academic subjects, not for preparing students for successful induction into the surrounding adult life.

When class teachers receive the training needed, they usually accept the second aim and make it a classroom objective.

¹ E. B. TITCHENER, *A Textbook of Psychology* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1910), p. 13.

Teachers, selected and trained to serve with personnel workers as teachers of "personal management," "orientation," and other group-guidance courses based on the common concerns of youth, often change both content and teaching methods in their subject-matter courses to such an extent that the latter courses show as much of the "adolescent-needs approach" as do the former. The converse of this situation is illustrated by the fact that the schools of the Eight-Year Study early learned that teachers of core courses should be those who had proved effective in personnel work.¹ One specific illustration: East High School of Denver, Colo., found that, in its development of successful core courses based upon typical needs of high-school students, it was essential that the teachers be "persons who will organize the work of the core course around the needs of pupils with little fear that as a result some of the subject matter they have previously dealt with may be omitted from the school program," that they also be "persons who have learned to deal with pupils by employing the commonly accepted principles of guidance and counseling," and that "teachers who succeed in core work find it necessary to continue their training in guidance and counseling."²

2. Group guidance through student conferences. Survey studies indicate that the conference is perhaps the most frequently and the most poorly used of all the group-guidance techniques. The conferences range from large ones for all students to small ones for only the students interested in a particular subject. They are organized mainly in order to present information about certain topics, believed to be of special interest to students, and are often planned so that this information will be given by "experts" or "authorities" on the topic. When the conference is limited to a few students brought together to consider a personal problem, it may more appropriately be called a "group interview" than a "conference."

The group interview is referred to at times in the literature as an absurdity and an impossibility. But many high-school workers, faced with the problem of providing special assistance to more students than they could possibly serve through private

¹ H. H. GILES, S. P. McCUTCHEN, and A. N. ZECHIEL, *Exploring the Curriculum* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1942), p. 58.

² HAROLD SPEARS, *The Emerging High-school Curriculum* (New York: American Book Company, 1940), p. 246.

interviews, early adopted the group interview through necessity and found the technique both possible and useful in practice. Recognition of the group interview as a legitimate technique came when the Second World War presented social workers the heavy case load long carried by student personnel workers. Then, in social case work the interview, always before considered a matter of interaction between two persons alone, took on group forms. Under pressure of military necessity Red Cross and other social case workers "with feelings of guilt and with fear that an unpardonable breach of professional integrity was being committed" adopted both the technique and the term "group interview."¹

In the group interview the purpose and the procedures are very much the same as those in the private interview. A few students, apparently facing the same or similar problems, meet with a worker to consider their problem or problems and to attempt formulation of some course of action leading, they hope, to solution. The group interview has certain definite advantages. The presence of other students helps to release the tensions and fears of the individual member. His problems made universal, hence less overwhelming, by a friendly group approach, the individual student finds it easier to verbalize his feelings and to talk about his own emotional problems. As a consequence, students produce together more valid and more significant material concerning the real difficulty than they would ordinarily do individually.

In the group interview rapport and an atmosphere of helpfulness and sympathetic interest are as important as in the private interview. If early in the conference friendly relations are not established and a problem-solving attitude is not adopted, the interview should be discontinued before speeches are made that will hurt and only increase conflict and confusion. If rapport is established and the purpose of the interview is fully understood and accepted, students help each other not only to express themselves better but also to understand themselves better. In the group the student is less likely to rationalize than he is in the private interview, and he is usually more ready to profit by the experience of others. If, for example, the problem is one

¹ C. R. NATHAN, "Casework in Groups," *Survey Midmonthly*, 80:280, October, 1944.

of adjustment to the new school, a student may withdraw his request for a change of teachers when he learns from another student that this may not be the solution, that he may only take his problem with him to the new teacher.

The group interview also has its limitations. Plans of action worked out during a group interview are less definite than those developed during private interviews. More suggestions have to be considered, and no single plan can be developed that will meet the needs of all the students present. The individual, however, usually assumes responsibility for continuing the work begun during the interview by exploring the various possibilities and by relating the results to his own particular problem. The group interview, however, is not always sufficient for all members of the group. Some students interviewed in the group will seek and need additional help through private interviews. Still the group interview may increase the effectiveness of the private interviews and may decrease the number needed.

The word "conference" is frequently used inaccurately by school people. It more often means a lecture about a topic than it does a discussion of the topic. Reluctant to make special provision for group guidance, many schools rely almost wholly upon the lecture method in the form of conferences. Experience, however, has proved this method of limited value. The lecturers are often poor speakers; and they frequently give incomplete, exaggerated, biased, or otherwise inaccurate presentations of their topics.

Conferences have proved ineffectual not only because of poor speakers but also, and largely, because they are often of the type described by one investigator as "spasmodic, unrelated, occasional, miscellaneous activity"¹ or because, as reported by another, they are frequently carried out incidentally without previous or systematic plans.² The conference—usually one about colleges or vocations—varies from the 1-day type to a conference lasting a week or longer. The conference lasting several days is usually more effective than the 1-day conference, perhaps because it requires more careful planning.

¹ R. B. CUNLIFFE, *Guidance Practice in New Jersey* (New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University, 1937), 59 pp.

² A. E. JONES, "Practices in Vocational Guidance in Secondary Schools," *California Schools*, 11:6, January, 1940.

When the procedure is properly used, a conference may have many of the values found in student activities and other group procedures. When students are permitted to share in organizing, planning, and evaluating the conference; when they are given an opportunity to follow it up through group discussions and classwork; and when they are given aid in interpreting and applying the information gained, the conference may be an exceedingly useful procedure.

The members of one section of a vocational-orientation class invited the members of other sections to join them in putting on a vocational conference. With the assistance of the teacher, the students planned, arranged, conducted, and evaluated the conference. The students soon discovered that preparation alone would keep them busy 7 or 8 weeks. Permission had to be obtained for the conference. Decisions had to be made concerning the occupations to be covered, the speakers to be invited, and the instructions to be given to these speakers. Time schedules had to be worked out and room arrangements made. Student officials—hostesses, ushers, chairmen, secretaries, attendance clerks, and others—had to be selected and instructed regarding duties and responsibilities. Accounts had to be written for the school newspaper. Registration had to be planned, and many other things had to be done to ensure a successful conference.

The students registered for the meetings of their choice 2 weeks in advance so that the student directors might make all necessary arrangements with regard to rooms and equipment. The conference lasted a week; attendance at all times was voluntary. Each day at the conference hour, meetings were held on some ten different occupations. Each day the conference was held at a different hour in order that the students would not be absent from any class more than once. And the teachers cooperated with the students by arranging classwork in such a way that no one would be penalized for attending the conference.

The students conducted the conference. The principal, the deans, and other faculty members were invited along with the president and other officers of the student body to meet the guest speakers during the social hour preceding the conference. But faculty members neither officiated nor were present at the different meetings. A student hostess went with the speaker to his

conference room and introduced him to the student chairman, who, in turn, presented him to the group. Later the student chairman presided during the discussion period. All records of the meetings were made by student secretaries.

During the weeks following the conference the students evaluated the different meetings, appraising them for strong and weak points. A record was made of important "do's" and "dout's" and left for the use of any other class that might decide to have a vocational conference. The students were very critical of the performance of some speakers, but they were even more critical of their own performances. Through letters of appreciation the speakers were invited to criticize the conference also. The speakers were less critical than the students, and many commented enthusiastically upon the fact that the students had apparently done everything and had done it well.

Although this conference may rightly be called a student conference, the students did not "do everything." The conference required a great deal from them in terms of time, thought, energy, initiative, and responsibility. In the same terms it required a great deal from the teacher, much more than it would have required had she decided to arrange a vocational conference for the students, working alone or with the aid of fellow teachers. Such a teacher-directed conference would have required less work on her part than a student-managed conference; but it would probably have had less than a small fraction of the value in terms of student growth, the primary value in all student personnel work.

Large conferences are often held for consideration of special problems, at times of an emergency nature. Whatever the circumstances may be, the conference should always have a definite purpose and should always be carefully planned. At times conferences may be arranged for no other reason than to give the personnel worker an opportunity to become acquainted with the students and the students with him. This get-to-know-each-other purpose is a good one and one which students are quick to appreciate; but even the conference called for this purpose must be carefully planned and must not be conducted in a careless, haphazard fashion lest the students get the impression that this may be the type of service that they will receive from the worker.

III. COORDINATION OF GROUP WORK AND COUNSELING

When group work and counseling are coordinated, the effectiveness of each service is strengthened many times by an almost continuous interchange of contributions. When these contributions are missed because one service is not supplemented by the other or because the two are not coordinated, certain important values may be lost entirely.

The cues for the group-guidance courses can be found in the counselors' records. As Allen says,¹ these courses should not be based upon hypothetical needs of adolescents but should be developed out of the common needs of students, discovered through continuous, periodical analyses of individual boys and girls. Counseling reveals the common and special problems of individual boys and girls, their needs, their strengths, and the sources of their anxieties. The activity program and group-guidance classes make it possible for the counselor to supply these students some of the information and special experiences that they need in order to make satisfactory adjustments and to achieve personal growth. And counseling, in its turn, helps to strengthen group work by revealing the need for improvement through modifications and additions and by carrying on with individuals where group work must leave off.

Group guidance prepares the student for counseling by giving him information that permits more profitable use to be made of counseling time. It also makes him aware of the special problems with which he needs counseling assistance. Not all students, however, are able to apply to their individual problems the findings of group study; and so whether a student seeks counseling or not, it should be provided to ensure his appropriating the values of group work on a personal basis.

The tendency of personnel work to take over the confusion and conflicts of contributing movements may be indicated in the propensity shown by some workers to emphasize in their practice either group work or counseling rather than group work and counseling. In doing this, they may reflect the division seen among social workers who tend to divide into two cults—those who understand and put their faith in the multiple-person

¹ R. D. ALLEN, *Organization and Supervision of Guidance in Public Education* (New York: Inor Publishing Company, 1934), p. 150.

approach of group work and those who understand and put their faith in the individual approach of case work.

Social-work leaders recognize that the progress of social work is threatened by this undesirable situation created by short-sighted workers who focus attention upon either individual needs or social needs to the neglect of the other. Today the leaders are trying to break down the barriers between the two groups by helping each group to acquire the supplementary knowledge and experience needed to keep in perspective both approaches. The leaders in social work are organizing case-work-group-work committees, are working out referral procedures, and are setting up cooperative experiments to help both groups to see that all are contributing to the welfare of the individual and to the general social good, that the only difference between the two groups is that one works through the group to the individual and the other through the individual to the group.¹

Fortunately, no such distinct separation has yet developed among personnel workers. That there is an inclination, however, for them to develop a prejudice toward either group work or counseling is indicated in the literature. But one writer, in reviewing the progress of personnel work, finds encouraging the fact that there is indication of a trend for "those who believe counseling will solve all ills and those who count on group work to save the world to combine."² This combination is essential if personnel work is to avoid some of the problems handicapping social work today and if it is to achieve greater progress by coordinating its services through practice as well as through administration.

¹ GERTRUDE WILSON, *Group Work and Case Work: Their Relationship and Practice* (New York: Family Welfare Association of America, 1941), pp. 1-11.

² ESTHER LLOYD-JONES, "Personnel Work Today," *Journal of Higher Education*, 13:86, February, 1942.

CHAPTER IX

HELPING THE INDIVIDUAL TO PROGRESS THROUGH SUPPLEMENTARY SERVICES: HEALTH, ORIENTATION, AND STUDENT AID

Studying the individual in order to learn his needs and to discover his potentialities is an important function of personnel work. Helping the individual to progress by assisting him to make satisfactory adjustments and to develop his potentialities is an equally important function and a more difficult one, perhaps. Helping the individual to progress may involve reeducating him, making changes in the school environment—curricular, instructional, administrative, and otherwise—and supplying him special assistance through counseling and special services. Not all such help can be classified as personnel work; but personnel workers are concerned with any effort, school or non-school, designed to help the individual to adjust and to progress satisfactorily.

Personnel work came into the average high school as a supplementary service to meet the needs of students that were not being met through classwork. It will always have a supplementary service function. For even though many of its special services will be and have been taken over by other workers, there will always be additional services needed to coordinate, supplement, and strengthen the services of other workers. To strengthen the total educational program by discovering and offering additional services that contribute to the personal happiness, growth, and social usefulness of individual students is a function obligatory on all personnel workers. Equally strong, however, is the obligation to assist other workers to take over these services when they are more closely related to the regular assignment of these workers and should rightly be done by them. Personnel workers are not interested, as accused, in retaining a monopoly on "the spirit and procedures of guidance."¹ On the

¹ P. W. L. Cox, "Educating Teachers for Guidance and Activities," *Educational Forum*, 4:50, November, 1939.

contrary, developing the personnel point of view throughout the institution was listed as a personnel service in one of the earliest and most important statements formulated on the subject.¹

Health guidance, orientation, work experience, placement, follow-up, and student aid are some services that first came into the average high school as personnel work. The extent to which they must be provided today as special personnel services depends upon the particular school-community situation; upon the type of curriculum provided—traditional subject-matter or youth-needs and life-activities type; upon the degree of continuity found within the school system—wide gaps, narrow gaps, or no gaps at all between the different school units; upon the special youth services available in the community, such as placement—good junior placement service through a public employment office or no junior placement service at all; and upon many other factors of a like nature.

I. HEALTH

If health is the quality of life that helps an individual to learn most and to serve best and if the principal objective of personnel work is the optimum development of the individual, personnel workers and health workers are close partners in the business of serving youth. These two aspects of the total program are so closely related that their services often overlap and the two divisions become interdependent. Consequently, cooperation and coordination are essential to effective performance of many services in both divisions. The objectives and procedures of workers in each division must be known, understood, and appreciated by workers in the other; and the services and facilities of one must be made readily available to both. Only in this way can the work of each be supplemented and strengthened by the work of the other.

A school's health program should include all the components emphasized by the American Association of School Administrators in its 1942 yearbook²—health examinations, health guidance and protection, health instruction, special provision for handi-

¹ R. C. CLOTHIER, "College Personnel Principles and Functions," *Personnel Journal*, 10:9-17, June, 1931.

² American Association of School Administrators, *Health in Schools* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1942), 544 pp.

capped children, physical education and recreation, healthful school environment, and cooperation with other community agencies interested in health. These services should be rendered primarily by workers especially trained in health education and health guidance. Counseling, working with others to secure provision for mental hygiene in the total school program, helping to improve the school environment and school life, coordinating and integrating health services with the services of teacher-counselors and of other personnel workers are the special services to be rendered by personnel workers.

Elaborate lip service is paid to health. It is included in practically every published list of educational objectives, and a great deal is written and spoken concerning the importance of this objective. But when a study is made of the school practices and procedures directed toward the achievement of this important objective, the findings are exceedingly disheartening. In too many schools the students are expected to get all the help that they need with regard to health by "taking gym" or "physical fitness" a few times a week and, in addition perhaps, by sitting through a class in health instruction that meets once a week or maybe only twice a month.

Too many of the courses in health offered by high schools today may be characterized as follows: In groups of 100, 200, 300, or even more the students are herded into an assembly hall to receive "health guidance." There curious students become disgruntled students when they discover that they must sit there for an hour and be "talked at" instead of being out in the gymnasium or on the athletic field doing more interesting, and to them more important, things. When they realize that these health meetings are to be a regular part of their school program, they settle down in various spine-breaking positions and try to become reconciled to hearing again about such crucial health matters as brushing the teeth daily, getting 8 hours of sleep every night, and seeing the doctor at least once a year. All that was interesting when they first heard it in the lower grades; it was somewhat tedious when they had to go through it again each year in junior high; and now it will be simply deadening to have to listen to it all once more. But, they console themselves, they really do not have to listen to it. They can sit back, instead, and think of other things or just daydream.

Many may meet this boring situation in very much the same way that Ann does. You might, Ann thinks, write something once in a while. That will please the teacher. She will think that she is so good that you are taking notes. And you don't have to pretend to be writing; you can write. You might write to Marge and ask whether she knows anything yet about the new girl who entered school last week, the girl with that clear, clear skin and the lovely, soft, fluffy hair. Ann stops writing to brood over her own lack of a clear complexion and to worry about her stringy, always oily hair. She just doesn't know what to do about her face. She has done almost everything. She has tried "the mild soap diet"; she has given herself countless "active-lather facials"; she has taken ever so many "facial cocktails"; and she has carried out the "beauty ritual" step by step according to the careful instructions given in the advertisement; but her face still looks awful. Last week one of the girls told her what it meant when a boy's face looked like hers. She didn't believe it, but she certainly would like to know whether people were saying things like that about her. But girls couldn't ask about things like that, could they? Well, she couldn't; she wouldn't even know whom to ask. Anyway, if her face didn't look better by May Day, she wouldn't go to the big dance. The other girls thought that that was silly. They couldn't understand other people's troubles, only their own. Even Marge was so occupied thinking about her own troubles that she wasn't very sympathetic with Ann. And Marge's problem really wasn't too bad. However, she did feel sorry for Marge when one of the gang made her cry by saying that she was glad that she wasn't like Marge "with a bosom that stuck out in front as big as all out-of-doors." But Marge could do something about her problem. She could wear a very tight brassière and push her breasts down real hard. Then nobody could see how big they were. But she, Ann, couldn't cover her face and push it out of sight. Everybody had to look at it. What was Miss Taylor saying now? Hair should be washed at least once every 2 weeks. Heavens, if she waited 2 weeks, she would be a fright. No matter what kind of shampoo lotion she used, she still had to wash her hair twice a week; and, even then, it would be oily and stringy looking within 2 days. And Ann sits unhappy the rest of the period, letting her eyes wander from head to head as she admires the hair—short hair,

long hair, curled hair, straight hair, all the hair so clean and lovely looking when compared with her ugly, greasy stuff.

As the students file out of the room, others, like Ann, feel a little guilty as they pass the teacher standing near the door. They feel guilty because they have spent the health period, not listening to what she was saying, but thinking, instead, about other things not really related, they believe, to the work of the health class: the scar on his face (no teacher can help him get rid of that); her being too tall (nothing can be done about that either except things that she must do herself, like holding her shoulders down a little); his being too fat (nobody can blame that on overeating; he eats so little that he feels hungry almost all the time); strong body odor (scrubbing doesn't help; perfume doesn't either); halitosis (dentist says his teeth are all right, and his tonsils and adenoids were taken out long ago); pigmented facial hair; and many other matters not closely related to health, the students know, but things that they cannot help thinking about even in class when they are supposed to be thinking about more important matters.

When instruction and group guidance in health is accepted as a curriculum objective, when achievement of this objective is sought through regular classwork with groups appropriately small in size and through the use of good instructional and group-guidance techniques, when classwork is supplemented by group interviews and by individual counseling, students learn that problems of body size and proportion, of facial appearance, of body odors, of physical handicaps and deformities, and even of sex are problems to be thought about and talked about during class period. They also learn that they are not uncommon problems of boys and girls; that other persons, too, consider them of great importance; and that teachers not only are interested in helping but are anxious to help them find more satisfactory ways of dealing with these problems.

Instruction and group guidance in health, as in the other life-adjustment areas, is the function of the teacher trained to give such instruction and guidance. Health instruction and health guidance of a specialized nature is the function of the specialist:—the nurse, the doctor, and/or the specialist in health education and health guidance. When the health problem is aggravated by serious emotional complications, counseling then becomes the

function of the worker who has had special training in this type of counseling. The specialist in counseling takes care, however, to work in close cooperation with the specialist in health work, to secure from the latter the general and technical information needed, and to confer with others concerning the soundness of judgments made. And here, as elsewhere, detection and referral of the students in need of special assistance is the function of every staff member.

Many special health problems will be discovered when students seek counseling regarding other problems. As already stated in Chap. VI, counseling cannot accurately be classified according to problems. There is really no such thing as "health counseling" or "vocational counseling," for counseling with respect to one problem always encompasses other problems. The trained counselor knows this; and when working with a student concerning any problem, he takes care to consider the other problems and needs of the student.

Often students are referred to a counselor because of behavior problems. Counseling may soon reveal that behind the behavior problems are serious health and emotional problems which have their origin in the student's unsatisfactory adjustment to the physical and physiological changes of adolescence.¹ The adolescents' problems of adjustment to differences in body size and proportion, to sexually inappropriate physique, to facial appearance, to body odor, to temporary and permanent handicaps, and to deformity are frequently intensified by deep emotional involvement. When such is the case, students need the assistance of the specialist in counseling as well as of the specialist in health.

There are problems that, as the students rightly say, teachers can do little, if anything, about—the scar, the too short leg, the absence of an arm, and other permanent handicaps. Nothing, perhaps, can be done to remove the handicap; but much, perhaps, can be done to help to make living with a permanent problem a little more tolerable. And undesirable patterns of adjustment—overcompensation, withdrawal, egocentrism, antisocial behav-

¹ For a summary and discussion of the numerous studies of adolescent development see "Section I: Physical and Physiological Changes of Adolescence," *Forty-third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, Part I, 1944, pp. 8-99.

ior, and the like—may be altered and better ones established through the adoption of more desirable mechanisms, such as sublimation and compensations that are more satisfactory for social as well as for individual reasons.

Sometimes, however, young people receive assistance in becoming resigned to enduring as permanent handicaps that need not be permanent. Personnel workers need to guard against such occurrences. This point was well illustrated in the case of Frances, a bright young girl of an unusually fine disposition. She was to graduate from high school within a few weeks, well fortified, her teachers and her classmates believed, to begin her struggle through life on legs so grotesquely bowed that at times it was easier for her to walk sideways rather than forward down a classroom aisle. Her legs were so misshapen that not only was her walking distorted, but also much of her height was lost. The girl never complained; she even smiled with others at her awkwardness; but no one doubted that she suffered excruciatingly because of her deformity. Her teachers thought that they had done all they could do in helping her to accept her condition, in seeing that she participated as fully as possible in student life, in commending her for her fine spirit and courage, and in helping to prepare her for the time when loss of youth might also bring some loss of kindly interest, understanding, and help on the part of others. That the girl need not stumble grotesquely through life no teacher had ever suspected.

One teacher was jolted out of her complacent acceptance of another person's deformity the night of the mother-daughter banquet that she attended with Frances, who was acting as her daughter for the evening. The girl accepting the relationship as a bona fide one, at least for the evening, chatted freely of that which was always foremost in her thoughts whenever she was with other young girls, straight-legged young girls able to walk across a room easily and gracefully, able to run down the hall to the dressing room to see whether the seams of their stockings—not their legs—were crooked, able to dance later in the patio with other straight-legged young creatures. The teacher said conversationally something about wondering whether anything could have been done about the legs when Frances was a baby. The girl could not answer for a moment because of emotion, emotion created, not by her problem, but by the scene that was

being enacted upon a stage improvised out of tables in the center of the room. There four mothers were "taking off" their daughters and in the doing were expressing with a vengeance some of their gripes against adolescents in general and against certain young ladies of the present assemblage in particular. Smothering her giggles, Frances answered, "Oh, yes, and it could be done now if my folks had the money." Not one member of the faculty had ever thought that the child's legs could be straightened. "How much, Frances?" the teacher asked bluntly. "A thousand dollars," Frances answered in very much the same tone that she might have used had the answer been, "A million."

Later that evening the teacher and the dean of girls talked about the banquet, but their conversation was less about the success of the affair than about the miracles that can be wrought with a thousand dollars. But the dean, a very practical person—something all high-school personnel workers have to be—quickly stopped thinking in terms of miracles and began to think in terms of the specifics that might make wonders come to pass:—the doctor who had said that the legs could be made straight, the doctor or doctors who could make them straight, the hospitalization required and the eligibility requirements, the welfare agencies to be contacted, the P.T.A. committees most concerned, and the social- and youth-minded citizens and the organized service groups whose assistance might be needed. In short, the dean of girls thought of every possible community resource that might be at all useful in Frances's case

No American community will knowingly and willingly permit one of its young people to lumber clumsily into adult life if there is a chance for that youngster to stride straight-legged into adulthood. For Frances there was such a chance, and the community saw to it that she was able to take advantage of it. The knowledge, the skill, the services, the material things, and the friendly understanding and sympathy that were needed were made available to her and made available in a noncharitable fashion. Taking advantage of the opportunity was not easy for Frances. Straight legs meant four operations, much pain, many long months in a cast, almost 2 years of invalidism. But it was a happy day for Frances and for the dean when the girl walked straight-legged into the dean's office to talk about the full-time

job that she was to begin the following week, a job for which the community had tried to equip her with a good education and good straight legs.

What the dean of girls did in this particular case is one of the most important things that a high-school personnel worker can do in the way of health service. The dean pushed the button, so to speak, that set into operation the process which resulted in the coordination of efforts required for producing the services needed by a particular student. And through skillful counseling the dean helped Frances to integrate the 2-year experiences so that the young girl was strengthened, not weakened, by receiving so much help, so generously given by so many people.

Health is the business of the total school, but it is the special concern of two divisions—health and student personnel work. And when these two divisions work in close cooperation, the business of health is carried on in a much better way than when private, uncoordinated operation is the prevailing practice. Health workers can help personnel work by keeping teacher-counselors informed concerning the health needs and health status of individual students. A student's adviser is then better equipped to help the student to live satisfactorily within his own limitations, to help him to plan a program in keeping with his health status and needs, and to secure the adjustments in school routine and program that are indicated by the student's health record. And personnel workers can do much to help health workers to close the wide gaps between students' health knowledge and health practices. They can help them to make students realize that brushing teeth daily, sleeping 8 hours out of 24, and seeing the doctor once in 12 months are indeed crucial health matters which can, perhaps, be talked about too much but which can never, perhaps, be safely left undone.

II. ORIENTATION

Helping the student to belong to a new school by helping him to find his place in it and to make good use of its offerings and resources is commonly described as "orientation." The school must help the new student to make a satisfactory school adjustment by creating a stimulating, satisfying educative environment; by providing opportunities for self-directive, creative activities; and by supplying him intelligent guidance. The

immediate purpose of the orientation work is to help the new student feel emotionally secure in his new school environment by making him feel wanted; by giving him as quickly as possible the information needed about school routine, regulations, plant, and personnel; and by securing from him the information needed in order to guide him into the right activities, curricular and noncurricular. Not to try to make induction into the new school pleasant and easy is to contribute to student mortality; for, as one research study shows,¹ the degree of difficulty encountered by students in changing schools is an important factor in the problem of student retention.

The descriptive accounts of school practices indicate that, on the whole, schools are giving much attention to "orienting" new students to high-school life,² that they are trying very hard to help students to get placed in the right high school and to make a good start in it. Before the student enters high school, he becomes acquainted with it through booklets and bulletins and through lectures given by its teachers and students. He has conferences with the high-school counselors. His program of study is planned and discussed with him and his parents. He spends a day at the new school, and he is given a "big brother" or a "big sister" to help him to find his place in the life of the new school. He registers at a special time and receives special assistance with this procedure. He receives a handbook. He attends an institute, a core course, or an orientation course or unit, designed to help him to become better adjusted to the new school. During the first month many school activities are planned for his particular benefit—special introductory units

¹ JOHN ASELTINE, "A Comparative Study of Certain General Characteristics and Later Life Adjustments of Selected High School Drop-outs" (unpublished doctor's dissertation; Los Angeles, Calif.: University of Southern California, 1941), p. 351.

² For examples of orientation procedures see M. A. Brown, "Educational Guidance in a Secondary School," *Journal of National Association of Deans of Women*, 2:8-14, October, 1938; M. R. Petteys, "An Introduction to High School," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, 16:173-177, March, 1941; H. N. Roe, "Helping Freshmen over the Hurdles," *Occupations*, 21:234-236, November, 1942; Marjorie Ronalds, "Orientation Program for Freshmen," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-school Principals*, 28:84-90, February, 1944; O. S. Thompson, "Freshman Orientation Program in Action," *Virginia Journal of Education*, 36:156-157, December, 1942.

in the various subjects, special issues of the school newspaper, special assembly programs, special meetings, and "get-acquainted" parties.

In spite of all this special help, the new student does not always find adjustment easy. Ordinarily, he must deal with many new problems. He has to adjust to a new type of educational organization, to new teachers, to new subjects, to new time schedules, to greater opportunities and greater responsibilities, to greater demands for intellectual maturity, to new techniques of class and laboratory work, to a need for more comprehensive knowledge of current affairs, to a need for selecting definite goals, and to a need for budgeting time and effort. When students enter a large school from others of differing social, economic, and cultural backgrounds, they meet problems in their social life, in adjusting to a new student body and new friends, in overcoming community and cultural distinctions. There may be new standards of dress, manners, and conduct; new attitudes, perhaps, of coldness, indifference, or superiority; new rules and regulations; and probably new freedom. All these problems can make the first semester one of confusion and conflict.

Helping the student to become adjusted to a new school is commonly considered the function of the receiving-school. The sending-school cooperates by supplying information requested about the student and by permitting representatives of the upper school to work with him while he is still in the lower school. But because the student is or soon will be no longer its direct concern, the sending-school leaves the matter of orientation almost entirely to the receiving-school. Consequently, helping the student to make a good start in college has been generally considered by the high school to be a function of the college. Some schools, however, are beginning to recognize that this is a problem that cuts across the secondary-school and college levels and that the high school must assume its part in work directed toward solution of the problem. We now find high schools accepting the problem of adjustment to college as their problem and, as in the Yale University investigation,¹ cooperating in its study.

Some high schools are trying to help students to get off to a good start in college by preparing them for the transition experience

¹ L. B. HALE and others, *From School to College: A Study of Transition Experience* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1939), 446 pp.

before they leave high school: College-bound seniors are placed in special English classes so that they may receive special help in preparing to adjust to college methods and standards. College preparatory clubs are organized. Special counseling assistance is offered to future college students by the high schools and by some colleges and universities which provide counseling for high-school students as "an auxiliary guidance service."¹ And in some schools orientation courses or special core course units are provided for these students.

The high-school courses for orientation to college are so different that a general description is not possible. No one example is typical, but space permits only one. In one of the "thirty schools" an orientation course is given for the seniors 2 hours a week.² The students survey possible sources of information about college; they make trips to colleges; under the direction of a university professor they develop a unit on learning and effective study methods; they attend lectures and demonstrations given by college professors; they learn about college courses and degrees; under the leadership of college students they hold discussions about extracurricular activities, campus politics, fraternities and sororities; and they hear college students tell why students fail in college. In this way the school tries to "give the student as much usable information as possible on college life."

III. ARTICULATION

Behind the problem of orientation is the problem of articulation, and underlying articulation is the problem of continuity. The Eight-Year Study supplies good evidence that the problem of articulation between high school and college is one of continuity. The study showed where the graduates of the "thirty schools" made good and bad adjustments in college and how their high-school experiences contributed or failed to contribute to satisfactory adjustment.³ The report shows clearly that the good adjustment necessary for college success cannot be obtained

¹ R. G. HAUKOHL, "University Counselors Serve High Schools," *Occupations*, 19:139-140, February, 1941.

² Progressive Education Association, *Thirty Schools Tell Their Story* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1943), pp. 791-795.

³ W. M. AIKIN, *The Story of the Eight-Year Study* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1942), 157 pp.

through such procedures as college days, conferences, freshman week, handbooks, special lectures, and the like alone. These procedures may help to make the transition experience less difficult; but good adjustment depends upon more substantial aid, upon the opportunities provided during high-school years for boys and girls to grow into mature men and women.

The students who graduated from the schools that were most experimental were more successful in college than graduates of the schools that were the least revolutionary in their changes. In the more experimental schools efforts were directed toward providing students the opportunity to attain not only the traditional objectives of an academic high school but all the objectives set up in the experiment as criteria for success in college—cultural development; good use of leisure time; growth in the appreciative and creative aspects; development of practical competence, common sense and judgment, philosophy of life, desirable character traits, emotional balance, social fitness, sensitivity to social problems, and physical fitness. It is not surprising that the study of the graduates of schools which sought to achieve all these objectives showed that the students not only earned a higher grade average but also, among other achievements, had about the same problems of adjustment as other students but approached their solution with greater effectiveness, were more often judged to possess a high degree of resourcefulness in meeting new situations, had a better orientation toward the choice of a vocation, and demonstrated a more active concern for what was going on in the world. Because their high-school training was more closely related to this life, these students were better equipped than the average graduates not only for finding their places in college but also for taking their places in adult life. Closer continuity brought about smoother articulation.

The problem of articulation between lower school and high school is also one of continuity. The ease with which a student makes the transition depends upon the width of the gap. If he finds that high-school experiences follow easily those of the lower school, he advances with little difficulty; if he finds that the experiences of the lower school are broken abruptly and followed by others not closely related, he becomes confused and may find it difficult to adjust to the new situation. "Big brothers" and "big sisters," handbooks and bulletins, institutes and assembly

programs are all extrinsic devices of limited value in such a situation.

Sometimes a student is badly confused by all that is done for him during his first days in the new school. For a week or two everybody is busy being very nice to him. He discovers that he is a very important person. Then unexpectedly everybody turns to his own business and leaves the poor student to take care of his problems alone and to get along the best that he can. He finds that he is not very important; he soon decides that he is not important at all. Last week the teacher was telling him how well he would like her subject, how glad she was to have him in her class, how much she wanted to help him. This week she tells him that he should have learned all that in the junior high school, that she cannot take time to go back and teach all that now, and that she doesn't understand just how he got out of junior high school anyway. He does not know what it is all about. Unlike the teacher, he has never heard about a school's starting with the pupil where it finds him. All he knows is that they did let him out of junior high, that they even gave him a diploma, that he does not understand what the teacher is talking about in class, that it looks as though he is going to fail, and that this might not be too bad after all if it will make the folks at home agree to let him quit school as soon as he is sixteen.

Many students, unhappily, do not find a continuity of school experiences. They find the wide gaps hard to bridge; they do fail; and many drop out. A study reported by Johnson revealed that a larger per cent of students failed in the ninth grade when it was the first year of high school than when it was part of the junior high school.¹ In the latter situation the gap between the eighth and ninth grades was less wide. The failing students were reported to be of normal intelligence; hence the difficulty was not caused by lack of mental ability. It must have been due, in part at least, to poor adjustment to the life and methods of a new school.

Better articulation between school units is being attained where teachers are not indulging in the practice of blaming teachers of other units for students' failure or poor adjustments but, instead, are working with teachers of other units to secure continuity of

¹G. R. JOHNSON, "Failures of High School Students in St. Louis," *American School Board Journal*, 91:44, November, 1935.

instruction and guidance throughout all units of the school system. In one city, elementary-school, junior-high-school, and senior-high-school teachers work together on common problems and make recommendations to the administrators of the different schools concerning how the suggested changes can be made.¹ Actual changes in content of courses and in methods of instruction have resulted from this cooperative work. Also, a more harmonious feeling has developed among teachers of different units. Although no evaluation of this work has been reported, undoubtedly the better coordinated school program produced by the joint efforts of the teachers has contributed much toward improved articulation between all school units.

Securing better articulation through a continuous program is a problem for general administration and curriculum specialists rather than for personnel administration, but it is not unrelated to personnel work. When personnel workers fulfill their function of developing the personnel point of view throughout the school system, teachers are more ready to put aside petty jealousies and to engage in cooperative efforts to develop a continuous program. Furthermore, when curricular and administrative obstacles to good articulation are removed, schools may be persuaded to replace superficial orientation procedures with a continuous program of information, counseling, and adjustment services during all school years for all students. And personnel workers will be able to use for work of a more developmental nature much time that is now being given to remedial work.

When spasmodic efforts to provide personnel services give way to a continuous program of service throughout all years, students will not be overwhelmed by the adjustment problems encountered as they move from school to school and from school into adult life. They will, however, continue to need special assistance at the various points of entrance and exit. They need help that is better planned, that is not given intermittently and in too concentrated doses, that is genuine and available at all times. Spend-days, assembly programs, and handbooks do help and have their place. They will be more helpful when improved. Lack of organization is characteristic of personnel practices in too many schools. Analyses of handbooks, for example, continue to show

¹ R. E. FORD, "Coordinating Junior High and High School," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, 17:424-425, November, 1942.

logical and systematic organization of material to be the exception rather than the rule.¹ It is not surprising that students are confused at times by the very procedures designed to help them.

IV. STUDENT AID

Increased awareness of the need for wider application of the principle that an acceptable minimum of educational opportunity must be made available to every individual regardless of his economic status is causing student aid to become as important a personnel service in high schools as it long has been in colleges. The increased emphasis and greater scope being given to this service today is illustrated in the following passage taken from a descriptive account of the American high school as it should be in the future:

The counselors are in general charge of part-time employment of students, whether in school or out. They administer the public funds for student aid. They cooperate with other teachers in arranging for the supervised work experiences which are integral parts of the educational programs of most students. And they are alert to see that work opportunities or scholarships are available to all students who need money to meet their personal expenses.²

1. Need for financial aid. The youth studies of the thirties showed that the young people of America found high-school education neither good enough nor free enough. High-school education is not free; for, as Clark asserts, "no school and no education is free until an individual who does not have money, or whose parents do not have money, can attend that school or obtain that education."³

There are many young people of high-school age who are not in school today because neither they nor their parents have sufficient money to cover the cost of certain expenditures—text-books and supplies, transportation, extracurricular activities, food, and clothing—which are paid for in part or entirely by a student's family. These items, particularly clothing, lunch,

¹ F. D. CURTIS, "A Study of High-school Handbooks," *School Review*, 51:614-618, December, 1943.

² Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1944), p. 47.

³ H. F. CLARK, *An Introduction to Economic Problems* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1936), p. 133.

carfare, and student activities, increase in cost as the student progresses in school. Because the cost of school attendance does increase from year to year, children of low-income families leave school in large numbers when they reach the age set for compulsory school attendance. A number of writers call attention to the monotonous regularity with which the studies of the late 1930's showed that the conditions revealed by Counts's investigation in the early 1920's still existed with regard to inequality of educational opportunity.¹ When Bell reported that children in the upper economic groups continued in school beyond the eighth grade with a relative frequency eleven times as great as that shown for children in the lower economic groups,² he was not reporting a situation peculiar to Maryland.

Poor children unable to maintain status with their fellow students drop out of school as soon as they have the legal right to do so. The education offered does not, in their opinion, compensate for the indignities to be endured while receiving it. Many of these children have no choice in the matter. They drop out because they are not able to meet the bill for necessities, not merely because they are unhappy over not being able to keep up with the Junior Joneses, although never, perhaps, at any other time in life is keeping up with the Joneses so important as it is in adolescence. Not to be able to attend meetings, plays, parties, and sports; not to be able to have the regulation "gym suit"; not to be able to subscribe to the "current-events paper" and to be always borrowing from another student; not to have even the minimum supplies for class and laboratory work; not to be able to eat with the other students at lunch time; not to be able to dress even half as well as the other students; in short, not to have the money needed for looking and acting like other students finally makes school life completely intolerable. Rather than suffer these humiliations any longer than necessary, the student withdraws as soon as his parents and state permit. He quits school to get a job so that he may eat and dress and play like other people of his age. Worse, however, is the case of the student who would gladly endure these discomforts and continue

¹ G. S. COUNTS, *The Selective Character of American Secondary Education* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1922), 162 pp.

² H. M. BELL, *Youth Tell Their Story* (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1938), p. 61.

his education but is also compelled to withdraw and go to work so that he and his family may eat and dress and pay the rent.

Is the cost of high-school attendance really so great that poor children find it prohibitive? When 150 high-school principals were asked this question, they said not, that the annual cost was no more than \$15 with an average cost of \$7.50 per student.¹ But the answers given by other educators, answers based upon research findings, indicate that the cost of general expenditures in high school is high. Data from an investigation by Hand showed that the annual cost of the average student in six high schools of the Middle West and East was as high as \$125.² And Jacobson learned that in 134 high schools the average expenditures ranged from \$96.54 for children of professional workers to \$69.19 for those of the unemployed and unemployable.³ Obviously, at this cost not many children of families with incomes less than \$1,000 can afford to attend high school. And are these children many? More than the average teacher believes, for even in the boom year of 1941 one-third the families in the United States had incomes of less than \$1,000 a year and one-half of less than \$1,500 a year.⁴

2. Ways and means. Educators can do three things to help correct this situation: (1) They can give full support to efforts directed toward reducing the cost of education to the individual. This will mean, of course, increased cost to the public. And they should remember that the public's willingness to pay the increased cost may be largely determined by the quality of education given to its children. (2) They should seek funds for student aid from public and private sources in order to supply food, clothing, shelter, medical service, and anything else needed by a student and keeping him out of school. (3) They should seek part-time employment for students who wish financial

¹ H. C. HAND, "America Must Have Genuinely Democratic High Schools," in North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, *General Education in the American High School* (Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1942), p. 18.

² *Ibid.*, p. 19.

³ P. B. JACOBSON, "The Cost of Attending High School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-school Principals*, 28:3-28, January, 1944.

⁴ *Spending and Savings of the Nation's Families in Wartime*, *Bulletin* 723, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1942), 22 pp.

assistance in this form and who can use it without damage to health or to social development.

More general and better provision is needed for free books, supplies, and transportation than is now being made. Other items also need to be made free. They should be made free to all students, rich and poor, not to the poor alone; for in our democratic society the stigma of "pauper aid" should not be attached to any student. Students should not have to pay fees for the use of a school library, laboratory, or gymnasium; nor should they have to support student activities by paying dues or buying activity tickets. The activity program is an integral part of high-school education and, like any other part, should be free.

Until communities are willing to bear the increased cost of improved education, until many general expenditures now met by individual students are absorbed in the general public cost of education, high schools must do everything possible to keep these general expenditures at a minimum and so supply financial assistance to students who need it to pay these personal expenses. Every school should carefully examine its fees, dues, and other charges paid by students in order to participate in school life, curricular and extracurricular. When charges are found unwarranted, they should be discontinued at once; when they are found too high, they should be promptly reduced to the least amount possible.

As many free activities as possible should be provided for students, and other activities should be made as inexpensive as possible. Less use of money by student groups often results in greater use of ingenuity, initiative, and creative ability. The rich child as well as the poor one finds pleasure in doing much with little, in making something out of practically nothing. In the doing, both learn the art of self-entertainment and discover that it has delights not found in many commercial amusements. Many expensive student activities prove no more valuable in terms of personal growth and social competence than do others less expensive and more democratic. When activities of the first type are characterized not only by expensiveness but also by snobbish superiority rather than by friendliness and social responsibility, they should definitely be discouraged. Forbidding such clubs or activities is, however, not the answer.

Such decrees only make reeducation of the members of these groups more difficult. To youth the forbidden often becomes more interesting than the permitted merely because it is forbidden.

Surplus funds produced by student activities should be turned back to students in the form of reduced cost of participation or some other provision leading to more general student participation. The money should not be used to purchase supplies that should be bought by school boards or to reward teachers who have done their jobs well. No administrator can justify permitting an athletic council with a full moneybag at the close of a good football season to pay the coach a bonus as long as the students must continue to pay to see their team play. If the coach is due more salary, let the school board pay him from the regular salary fund; and let the students' money be used to make it possible for more youngsters to enjoy the pleasure of attending football games. High-school students will, no doubt, agree that this is a very important form of student aid.

Many students will need individual financial assistance in order to meet the everyday personal expenses requisite to school attendance. During the depression years many boys and girls were able to remain in high school by means of Federal aid received through NYA. Although NYA has been discontinued, high-school personnel workers can expect better provision to be made in the future than in the past for student aid through earmarked funds, state and Federal. They can also expect to have to continue their efforts to supplement the public funds with funds from private sources—public-spirited groups, such as philanthropic organizations, labor groups, service clubs, and professional associations, and social-minded individuals. To make known students' needs for financial assistance and to arouse public interest in increasing work opportunities and scholarships for these students is an important function of high-school personnel workers. Moreover, a public informed regarding conditions creating a need for aid from private sources is usually more ready than an uninformed public to vote the funds needed to make high-school education more realistically free.

The financial assistance granted to high-school students should be in the form of payment for work or an outright grant. Only in rare instances should aid be given to a high-school student in the form of a loan. Young people should not be inducted into

adult life with that life already mortgaged. And aid should always be given in such a way that to the student it implies honor and responsibility. In no way should it lead to loss of self-respect. The student should be made to feel that he is being helped because he is worth helping, that he is being helped to continue his education because society considers that education an important social and economic investment, and that final payment of his debt can be made only in terms of service to society.

Student aid should be granted on the basis of need. No other rule of eligibility is required. Determining the extent of need and granting financial assistance involves skillful counseling. The group interview often proves a useful aid here. Meeting with other students to discuss the issues involved in student aid and to make decisions concerning the best procedures to adopt, the individual sees that he is not being helped because he is poor but because he is considered capable of assuming the responsibilities involved in paying his personal expenses. Group reinforcement, moreover, makes him feel less guilty about taking the help he needs and more responsible for carrying out his part of the contract, whatever that may be.

Some students will want financial assistance through part-time employment. When the school has a work-experience program, the student will be assigned a job with pay. Work-experience programs, however, are not provided either solely or mainly for purposes of student aid; they are provided for all students because of their learning rather than their financial value. The part-time jobs may vary from only a few hours a week to several hours a day and may be of the various types of paid employment provided in the work-experience programs now in operation (see Chap. X).

The personnel worker should know the employment conditions of the job to which he assigns a student. He must be certain that the student will not be exploited and that work conditions will not be injurious to the student's health or detrimental in any other way to his welfare, social, moral, or otherwise. If the student must work several hours a day and if school credit is not given for this work because it is not a part of an education-through-work program, the student will probably need to plan to prolong the period of high-school attendance. Counseling

should be provided to help him to evaluate this need and to revise educational and vocational plans accordingly. The student should also be offered the vocational guidance needed for helping him to make full use of the exploratory and developmental values of his work experiences. Whenever possible, these experiences should be related to his school experiences.

CHAPTER X

HELPING THE INDIVIDUAL TO PROGRESS THROUGH SUPPLEMENTARY SERVICES: WORK EXPERIENCE, PLACEMENT, AND FOLLOW-UP

To help students to make satisfactory adjustments and to progress is the purpose of all the supplementary services named in the preceding chapter—health guidance, orientation, student aid, work experience, placement, and follow-up. While these services are basically concerned with adjustment and progress in any present or future undertaking, the focus in the first three is largely upon educational adjustment and progress and in the last three upon vocational. Placing the emphasis on one area need not imply, however, neglect of any other area.

I. WORK EXPERIENCE

Learning through work has always been an important part of a young person's education. In the past youth received this training outside the school, for work experience was a normal part of almost every young person's out-of-school life. Few young people were able to escape it. Today this is no longer true. The average home does not abound in opportunities for work; and, except in wartimes, industry has little need or desire for the services of youth. This lack of opportunity for work experience with its consequences in terms of mental health and character development was a common finding of the youth studies of the 1930's. Schools, desirous of providing an education adequate to the needs of youth, soon realized that the curriculum would have to be expanded further in order to include a new area of responsibility—work experience.

In some high schools this new educational opportunity—learning through work—means only vocational education and is provided primarily for students not oversuccessful in "book learning." In other schools—schools, perhaps, more sensitive to social changes and more alert to opportunities for meeting the needs created by these changes—work experience is considered

of such great importance that it is made an integral part of the general education of every student.

In the average high school this new phase of education, however it may be interpreted, is usually considered personnel work. Part, if not all, of the work-experience program is made the responsibility of the personnel workers because the new work involves other personnel services, such as vocational guidance and placement, and because personnel workers are generally better trained than class teachers for the new type of teaching required and for working with out-of-school agencies. There is good evidence, however, that the work-experience program is most effective when it is made the responsibility of a person especially trained for this work, called usually a "coordinator." This worker is frequently a vocational-education teacher or a vocational-guidance worker, selected and trained in this new area of specialization that cuts across the territory of vocational guidance and of vocational education. Thus a new type of educational specialist has recently come into the high schools.

The need for placing the work-experience program in the charge of someone trained in this particular area is clearly revealed in the descriptive accounts given of some programs initiated during the war years when there was a tremendous demand for the services of youth. These glowing, enthusiastic, we-serve-our-country-and-we-serve-our-students accounts stand in striking contrast to the sober, thoughtful, I-wonder-whether-we-are-doing-the-right-thing accounts written prior to 1939. Certain accounts written after that date indicate that some schools actually thought that by permitting their students to come to school late or to leave school early, by giving the students school credit for work done outside school during school hours, and by having a teacher visit the students at their places of employment from time to time, they could honestly claim to have made adequate provision for education through work. Worse than this, some schools through their programs of work experience aided the exploitation rather than the education of youth. At times school-attendance laws and child-labor standards were disregarded; some students had work experiences that were hazardous to their health and detrimental to their welfare; and the interests of industry were too often placed ahead of youth's need for an education.

By 1943 the wartime situation with respect to employment of youth had become so serious that strong protests and suggestions for improvement appeared frequently in the literature of that year. Educators, individually and in committees, protested the exploitation of youth's need and the misuse of increased opportunity for work experiences. They sought to clarify the issues involved in education through work, to formulate the underlying philosophy, to determine the true nature and purpose of work-experience programs, to establish criteria, to study particular programs in operation, and to report attainable and superior practices. The number of books and articles published on the subject during that one year alone showed that work experience had become a matter of much concern to many school people.

The National Association of Secondary-school Principals was among the organized groups which studied the problem. The first issue of *the Bulletin* in 1943 was devoted to two important wartime opportunities for high-school students—work experience and acceleration—both holding great possibilities of help and of harm. In this issue appeared Leonard's important statement of criteria for work-experience programs.¹ According to this series of standards, a good work-experience program is one that has the following characteristics: (1) School study and work experiences are related. (2) The work-experience program provides a student opportunity for both social and vocational experiences. (3) The program of work is varied. Some work is done in school and some in the community; some is done with pay and some without pay. (4) The work is performed under normal conditions of the job. (5) Ample time and recognition are given to work experience. Three elements are held important here—flexible time schedules, school credit, and financial reward. (6) The work is progressive and is adjusted to the growth level of the student. (7) The work-experience program is supplemented by an adequate program of guidance, placement, and follow-up in order that students may have meaningful experiences that serve personal growth and social development. (8) The work is supervised by a schoolworker who knows the requirements of the job, who is able to analyze difficulties, and who can recognize success.

¹ J. P. LEONARD, "The Nature of Work Experience," *Bulletin of the Association of Secondary-school Principals*, 27:7-12, January, 1943.

These are high standards, and it is exceedingly doubtful that any program meets them all. Furthermore, not all administrators accept all the standards. Many debates are held concerning the need to provide work experience for all students, the desirability of granting school credit, and the importance of supplying each student a variety of work experiences. Leonard's standards may be Utopian, but they do offer high schools a useful yardstick for determining shortages in their programs. Once shortages are determined, the situation should be canvassed for all possible means of correction; and the feasibility of these should be carefully considered.

When the average school begins to organize its resources for work experience, it discovers a number of important unused sources. Employment in private industry is only one job source and should never be relied upon as either the only or the main source. Only in periods of relatively high general employment can it supply work opportunities to many students. In addition to private employment, schools should make use of other resources, which ordinarily include the following:

1. Student activities offer important jobs to many students. The editors of the school newspaper and yearbook, the band librarian, the managers of athletic teams, the stage director, and other student officers hold important jobs that provide useful work experience. This kind of work should be done without pay.

2. Every school abounds in opportunities for work experience through unpaid service. Students work in offices, rest rooms, mimeographing rooms; assist in caring for and beautifying the school; and perform many similar services. This service without pay makes a student feel that he has a vested interest in certain activities and in the school as a whole. Having contributed needed services, he feels that he now has a share in the institution. He belongs to it, and it belongs to him.

3. In like manner, through participation in community projects—recreational, beautification, welfare, research, and the like—students obtain some of their most meaningful work experiences.

4. Funds earmarked for student aid are used to create jobs in the school. Student assistants work with pay in classrooms, laboratories, libraries, museums, and gymnasiums. When students take part in useful work in school or community for

which they are not paid or are paid with earmarked funds, they should be rotated on the work in order that each student may have a variety of experiences and each a fair share of the difficult and the easy, the tedious and the interesting. Also, in any school and community there is too much work that needs to be done for students ever to be assigned to jobs that prove to be no more than busywork. To be meaningful, work experiences must be purposeful.

5. Students are employed to fill jobs carried on the regular school budget, such as working in the cafeteria and assisting the custodians of the buildings and grounds.

One of the most interesting facts about the work programs now in operation is that schools which are apparently least able to offer work experiences to their students are often the ones most successful in this enterprise. When jobs do not exist, these schools create them. Mobilizing school and community resources, they undertake projects leading to community improvement and to production of needed services. Some schools go further, expanding the opportunities for work experiences by organizing productive and distributive cooperatives, by engaging independently in productive enterprises, and by financing projects undertaken by students individually or in groups.

The programs now in operation show different patterns,¹ which have few common features. A plan reported frequently, and with many variations, is the four-four plan adopted by a number of schools in Florida and California. According to this plan, students attend school 4 hours and work 4 hours in the business and industrial establishments of the community. An effort is made to match students and jobs, to relate school and work experiences, and to provide careful supervision and

¹ For some examples of these programs see J. B. Jacobson, "Adolescents Need Experiences in the Work of Their World," in North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, *General Education in the American High School* (Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1942), pp. 268-289; "Part I: Work Experience in the Secondary School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-school Principals*, 27:3-107, January, 1943; *Schools and Manpower*, *Twenty-first Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators*, 1943, 448 pp.; *Toward a New Curriculum*, *Yearbook of Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development of the National Education Association*, 1944, 188 pp.

guidance. Job placement is usually the function of the supervisor or coordinator. During the war years, however, some schools permitted students to find their jobs unaided. In the few communities served by junior divisions of the U.S. Employment Service the students were usually assigned to their jobs by these offices. In some cities, such as Seattle, a school staff member was assigned to full-time work with the public employment office to provide guidance for high-school students and to control their recruitment and placement on part-time jobs.

Some schools are experimenting with a plan that has proved successful in some colleges—alternate periods of full-time work and full-time employment. A Connecticut school has found, however, that the periods must be as short as 1 week in order to avoid the waste of time involved in reorienting students at the beginning of each period. A modification of this plan has been suggested for schools within easy reach of industrial centers. According to this scheme, students would attend school the first part of the week and during the latter part would work in a neighboring community or would participate in community projects in their own town or village. And in North Dakota and Washington some high schools are developing flexible plans that permit students in the same school to follow different types of programs with different time schedules.

Although the four-four plan is apparently the one most frequently used, no single plan seems widely used or standardized to any great extent. Standardization, however, is not needed; nor should it be sought. Work-experience programs, like other aspects of high-school education, should be patterned according to the needs of students in particular schools of particular communities.

The number of schools reporting success with work-experience programs is so great that one cannot but be convinced that these programs are here to stay. Changed economic conditions will, of course, bring many changes in present programs. Some schools that introduced education through work during the war years because it was the "thing to do" and an easy thing to do will, no doubt, cease to offer their students work experience when this becomes the hard thing to do. When, however, these schools see that other schools—some fortified by depression-years experience with work programs—are able to continue the

work, they may take courage and again try to provide this type of education, this time perhaps on a sounder basis.

When programs are organized to provide students not work alone but education through work, they have, in addition to the usual developmental values of all good education, certain exploratory and orientation values. When work experiences are carefully supervised and supplemented by guidance, they help students to avoid the common vocational faults and to cultivate the important vocational virtues—punctuality, honesty, reliability, accuracy, cooperativeness, and the like. While work experiences give few students an opportunity to explore many occupations, they do give all students an opportunity to learn their likes and dislikes, their strengths and weaknesses in an occupational situation.

Work experiences make less difficult the transition from school to work world and from youth to adulthood. To the students one of the chief values found in the work-experience program is the right it gives them to claim work experience. In normal times this is an important prerequisite for a job, and many employers consider it more important than special training. By bringing the student into direct contact with the work world, work experience also has value in providing a basis for learning the occupational relationships—relations with employers, clients and customers, and other employees. And students soon learn that the skills and personal qualities important to success in school activities are also important to success in occupational activities. By thus making school objectives more realistic and by increasing the student's social understanding through increased participation in community life, work experiences help to bridge the gap between school and society and between childhood and adulthood.

II. THE PLACEMENT SERVICE

Upon leaving high school, many students need assistance in getting placed in an occupation or in another educational institution. Some students who plan to continue their education while working wish both types of assistance, educational and vocational. To provide this assistance, to help individual boys and girls to get off to a good start in their post-secondary-school careers, high schools must supply or help other agencies

to supply the placement and follow-up services needed by these young people.

1. Vocational placement. Helping the student to enter upon and to progress in an occupation is as important a part of the vocational-guidance process as is helping him to choose and to prepare for an occupation. Both parts should always be provided, and the two parts should never be separated. Yet rarely have they been related. During the twenties when jobs for youth were plentiful, placement was easy and, consequently, emphasized. During the thirties when jobs became scarce, placement became difficult and, as a result, was generally neglected and frequently abandoned. This situation continues to exist today; for when vocational guidance is offered, it is usually limited to the first part of the process, to helping a student to select and prepare for an occupation. When both parts of the process are provided, they are seldom related.

The authorities on personnel work have always accepted placement as a student personnel service. The early writers accepted the service as a legitimate part of personnel work but protested the unsatisfactory features of placement as then provided in many high schools—an overemphasis on job getting and a neglect of counseling. Because some early writers stated that the emphasis should be upon helping the early school leaver to continue in school rather than upon getting him a job,¹ they are said to have opposed placement as an educational service. No one, however, should object to their point of view. It is the point of view that has helped to effect passage of child-labor laws and legislation to raise the school-attendance age, that has helped to secure stricter regulations for taking the school census, and that has led to better provision for students to continue in school while working. It is a point of view still endorsed by the vocational-guidance authorities.

The literature of today, like the earlier literature, shows an acceptance of placement as a personnel service. Writers, in

¹ J. M. BREWER, *The Vocational Guidance Movement* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1918), p. 275; J. B. DAVIS, *Vocational and Moral Guidance* (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1914), p. 156; A. H. EDGERTON, *Vocational Guidance and Counseling* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1926), pp. 31-32; W. M. PROCTOR, *Educational and Vocational Guidance* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1925), pp. 258-259.

general, agree with Kitson¹ and Myers² that not to perform this service is to leave vocational guidance unfinished. And it is in this unfinished state, according to research reports, that vocational guidance is usually left; for the placement service is seldom provided today. A study of 5,000 school leavers in six communities showed that only about 4 per cent of the youth secured their first jobs through the schools.³ This finding would have little significance if one could believe that these students received help from some other public agency; but other studies cause one to doubt that these students fared any better in this respect than did youth in other communities during the same period, the 1930's. In Philadelphia more than three-fourths of the students who left school, with or without a diploma, depended upon friends and relatives for help in securing employment.⁴ Other studies showed rural youth even more dependent upon such methods. A 2-year study of rural youth in North Carolina showed that 98 per cent secured their initial employment through personal applications,⁵ relatives, and friends.

The findings of these and other studies, made during the thirties, called the public's attention to the fact that youth were not receiving adequate placement service from any public agency at the time that they most needed it. Efforts to meet this need came not from within the schools but from without, principally through Federal agencies, such as the NYA and the U.S. Employment Service, which opened junior placement offices in some cities. Social service agencies, such as the Y's, which had long provided placement service for youth in some communities, increased the service in these communities and extended it to others. Frequently, assistance in a less well organized form was also offered by other service groups, such as the Rotarians and

¹ H. D. KITSON, "Trends in Vocational Guidance," in E. A. Lee, editor, *Objectives and Problems of Vocational Education* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1938), 2d ed., p. 270.

² G. E. MYERS, *Principles and Techniques of Vocational Guidance* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1941), p. 293.

³ EDWARD LANDY, "Principals Offered Follow-up Program," *Occupations*, 19:266-272, January, 1941.

⁴ *When Philadelphia Youth Leave School at 16 and 17* (Philadelphia: Junior Employment Service of the School District of Philadelphia, 1941), p. 32.

⁵ G. W. LOVEJOY, *Paths to Maturity* (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1940), p. 140.

Kiwanians. In this way more service was provided in some communities; but, because of faulty integration between the various agencies, it was not always better service.

The need for placement service comes when the student is leaving or has left school, and so agencies other than the school may become involved in the process. When two or more public agencies in a community are concerned with placement as a youth service, the question of responsibility for performance is soon raised. The answers vary. In some communities each agency may say to another, "This is your job; so you do it." The student soon discovers, however, that it is his job or that of his family and friends. In other communities each agency may assert, "This is my job; so you keep out of it." Here much time and energy needed in serving youth are dissipated in guarding rights. In some communities—and they are far too few—each agency says to the others, "This is our job; so let's do it together." Fortunate are the youth who live in such communities, for theirs may be a service adequate to need.

Such were precisely the situations disclosed by the Joint Project of the American Youth Commission and the U.S. Employment Service.¹ According to this investigation, youth in the majority of communities do not receive placement service because no agency offers it as a public youth service. The schools in these communities find a number of reasons to explain why they should not assume responsibility for the work. They maintain—in spite of all evidence to the contrary—that through occupational information and counseling they prepare the student sufficiently well for entering into the work world without any further assistance from the schools; that excessive paternalism on the part of the schools prevents a student's exercising initiative and ingenuity; that placement service requires too much time and results in neglect of other more important services; that because the public employment offices are better informed regarding occupational opportunities and trends, are better financed, equipped, and staffed for the work, these agencies can perform the function better; and that placement work by the schools would be only wasteful duplication.

In other communities the junior placement service is offered

¹ H. M. BELL, *Matching Youth and Jobs* (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1940), 277 pp.

independently by the public employment office and by the school system. In some such places the school service is centralized in one office, whereas in others separate offices are maintained for different schools. In these communities the schools claim that they are responsible for serving graduates and school withdrawals. And the public employment office announces that it is responsible, legally as well as morally, for serving all applicants, juniors or adults, who seek its services. If each agency looks upon serving junior applicants as its special sacred trust, each may issue a statement to this effect. These statements, however, seldom clarify the issue; sometimes they contain too many "fightin' words." When schools urge each other to guard "jealously their undoubted authority and responsibility" and the public employment office contends that with respect to placement the schools "never were intended to act in that capacity,"¹ the chances of cooperative effort grow slim.

When this situation exists, who does the job is made more important than getting the job done. In trying to prove rights by finding the greatest number of jobs and by serving the greatest number of youth, the total number of youth served may be less than it would be were efforts coordinated and were the information had by one agency made available to all placement workers. Also, youth and jobs are less well matched than they would be were all youth served by a central office. And, under these conditions, employers cannot be criticized too severely if they do not always provide the cooperation needed. Because they find working with a number of competing agencies both difficult and costly, many employers prefer to rely entirely upon the services of their own employment offices.

In the third group of communities, unfortunately a small minority group, agency loyalties and individual interests give way before community determination to offer youth adequate placement service through intelligently coordinated efforts. In these communities, instead of concern for individual spheres of influence, with its consequent distrust and antagonism, is found concern for utilizing all community resources in order to help youth to make a satisfactory social and occupational adjustment. These communities know that the assistance needed by youth is so great that all interested agencies and individuals can share

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 231.

in the work and that none will be left without an important task to perform. This type of community is exemplified by St. Louis,¹ which has converted the poorly coordinated, haphazard service offered by more than 20 nonprofit agencies into a well-integrated cooperative service centralized in one office. In this city the service is centralized in the public employment office. In Denver and Providence centralization is achieved through a school office. In these communities—youth-minded rather than agency-minded—all agencies contribute their services regardless of the location of the central office. When provision is thus made for cooperative performance, junior placement becomes a community responsibility rather than an agency right.

To avoid wasteful duplication and other undesirable by-products of competition, it is important that all junior placement work be centralized. How and where this is done is less important. A community survey may not only reveal faulty integration and the other obstacles to effective service but may also show the best way to secure the needed integration. If the evidence indicates that centralization is best secured through the public employment office, that office should be used. If the evidence indicates that a school office will serve the purpose best, a school office should be used. If the evidence is not conclusive and a decision cannot be reached in any better way, then, as Bell suggests,² someone should flip a coin. For, as the New York Regents' Inquiry showed, "at the present time the important thing is that the leaving pupils, both graduates and nongraduates, should be placed, not who is to place them."³

Whoever does provide the service must see to it that it is a youth rather than an industrial service. When placement is an industrial service, the emphasis is usually on the job rather than on the individual and his needs. The student's qualifications are considered principally in terms of work experience of which he has only a little, if any, and that little of a limited nature. The needs of the employer are placed before those of youth, whereas the emphasis should be on the latter if placement is to be a personnel service. As an industrial service, placement is often

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 75.

² *Ibid.*, p. 235.

³ T. L. NORTON, *Education for Work: The Report of the Regents' Inquiry* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1939), p. 151.

no more than interviewing and job finding. As a personnel service, it is more discriminating. Having helped the student to select and to prepare for his occupation, the school in cooperation with other agencies must help him to find employment in this or a related occupation that is conducive to his happiness and growth. If the first job does not offer the desired opportunity, the student will need help in changing to another. If he is unable to find employment, he will need assistance, such as counseling and further training, in order to maintain morale and to use the period of unemployment in such a way that interest and preparation will not be lost.

What can high schools do to make placement a youth service? If placement is centralized in a nonschool agency, the answer is to assist coordination of school and placement-office work by supplying the placement office all information needed about individual students, by utilizing in vocational guidance the information received from the placement office concerning occupations and occupational trends, by informing students about the placement service and helping them to use this service intelligently, and by assisting the placement office and other cooperating agencies in any other way possible. If the service is made a school function, the answer is to supply full and effective performance of all parts of the service—counseling, finding and recommending jobs, and follow-up—and to provide cooperation with other agencies through friendly, intelligent use of their services.

It is neither friendly nor intelligent use, however, to ask a community agency to provide individual schoolworkers the information needed in relating school- and agency work. Definite channels of communication should be established between school- and nonschoolworkers. The teachers should know the persons appointed to act as their liaison officers with the various community agencies and should relay their requests through these persons. When this is done, the director of an agency needs to pick up the telephone receiver only once to answer the question puzzling twenty different schoolworkers.

As our economic life becomes more complex, placement becomes a more complicated service and one very difficult for any school to perform. Because the task of analyzing occupational needs has become so vast, the American Association of

School Administrators believes that the placement service must be left with government agencies,¹ that only a closely synchronized system of public employment offices can deal with a placement problem steadily increasing in magnitude and difficulty because of increasingly changing occupational patterns, shifting populations, and varying regional needs and conditions. Although the U.S. Employment Service for junior applicants was practically eliminated after 1941, the administrators assume that the prewar program of specialized junior-placement service will be resumed and expanded.²

The administrators also assume that the high schools realize that centralization of junior services in a government employment office does not alter the fact of community responsibility and that the high school as a functioning part of the community must have an important share in the work. Without the cooperation of high schools, the public employment offices will be seriously handicapped in their work. Let us hope that in the future survey studies will disclose better cooperation by high schools than such studies have shown in the past. In one state an inventory made by the high-school teachers showed that the average high school neither provided placement service nor cooperated with outside agencies which did provide it.³ A nation-wide study of the junior-placement service of public employment offices furnishes conclusive evidence that this lack of cooperation on the part of high schools creates a serious problem in many states,⁴ not in one alone.

2. Educational placement. Instead of, or in addition to, vocational placement, students often need educational-placement service. In the average high school this service is information (usually fragmentary rather than comprehensive) and consultation (usually advisory rather than counseling). As in the case of

¹ *Schools and Manpower*, pp. 217-218.

² In 1937 the U.S. Employment Service provided specialized junior-placement service in only 55 cities; in 1940 it provided the service in 300 cities. Although the service increased over 200 per cent during a 3-year period, it was still limited in 1940 to only about 20 per cent of the 1,600 public employment offices. BELL, *op. cit.*, pp. 70-71.

³ *Guidance Service Standards for Secondary Schools* (New Brunswick, N.J.: New Jersey Secondary School Teachers' Association, 1937), p. 40.

⁴ *Junior Placement: A Survey of Junior Placement Offices in Public Employment Centers and in Public-school Systems of the United States, 1940*, 134 pp.

vocational placement, because the student is on his way out of the school and other agencies are concerned in this service, high schools assume less responsibility for it than they would perhaps if other agencies were not involved. The very eagerness, however, with which some agencies stand ready to take over this service should make a school reconsider giving up its part of the work.

The information given to students about educational opportunities beyond high school is usually limited to information about colleges. If there is a training school for nurses within or near the community, students may receive information about this type of training. They seldom, however, receive information about proprietary schools that prepare for stenography, beauty culture, photography, and other trades. The fact that high schools do not report giving information about this kind of school indicates that they do not recognize their responsibility for collecting and giving information about training opportunities other than those of high school and college. In some large cities, organizations, such as the Vocational Service for Juniors¹ and the Adult Educational Council,² supply information needed about training opportunities within the community. This kind of information is needed in every community and can usually be acquired through a community survey.

Educational surveys are as much needed as are occupational surveys and can be more easily made by high schools. When a survey is made, the findings should be made known to all students. In one school this information is published in pamphlet form for student and faculty use. In addition to information about educational opportunities in the immediate and neighboring communities, the bulletin contains general instructions for use of the information, references to other sources of information, and precautions to be observed in investigating a school or other training agency.

Because many students will continue their education through home-study courses and through proprietary schools in other communities, they also need to be informed concerning sources

¹ *Directory of Opportunities for Vocational Training in New York City* (New York: Vocational Service for Juniors, 1943), 128 pp.

² *Adult Education Offerings* (New York: Adult Education Council, 1935), 141 pp.

of information about such agencies and to be instructed in the use of public libraries for further information about such sources. Unfortunately, few directories of proprietary schools are available; and these are of limited usefulness. However, more requests for information may lead to publication of better directories by some educational association. Failure to provide accurate information about private training agencies makes it easy for unreliable ones to exploit youth's need and desire for further education. While young people are still in high school, they should learn about the great cost and little value of certain types of training, as revealed by the investigations of Woodyard¹ and others.

Studies, such as the Pennsylvania Inquiry,² show that many students who should be are not placed in college. To reduce the social waste resulting from this loss of good college material, better educational-placement service is needed. It is the personnel worker's responsibility to discover the students who should be encouraged and assisted to attend college, to help these students and their parents to understand and to appreciate the purposes and values of higher education, and to cooperate with parents and with the colleges to the end that the right student may go to the right college. To place the right student in the right college, however, the worker must have sufficient information to appraise both student and college. With respect to the student the counselor needs to know his capacities, potentialities, and special needs; his interest in and purposes regarding higher education; and the types and qualities of his experiences. With respect to the college the worker must be able to appraise its resources for establishing mutuality of interests and purposes with the student and for providing him the assistance, challenges, and experiences important to his growth. To do all this, the worker must have the use of good continuous records of students and must have much more information about colleges than their conventional statements of entrance requirements.

High-school students usually receive information regarding

¹ ELLA WOODYARD, *Culture at a Price* (New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1940), 125 pp.

² W. S. LEARNED and B. D. WOOD, *The Student and His Knowledge* (New York: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1938), pp. 35-37.

college-entrance requirements whether they intend to go to college or not. Less often do students who plan to go to college receive information about the various kinds of colleges, what college can and cannot do for them, the factors to be considered in selecting a college, and the factors that make for success in college. Students today, however, do have better access to this type of information through the literature than did students in the past. Much general material suitable for use by high-school students is now provided through such books as those by McConn¹ and Lovejoy.²

Although other sources are available, the counselor's main source of information about colleges is usually the college catalogues. But he has other important sources in the *College Blue Book*,³ *American Universities and Colleges*,⁴ and the publications of the U.S. Office of Education and of such organizations as the Institute of Women's Professional Relations. These sources, however, do not supply all the information needed for effective counseling with respect to colleges. Personnel workers need information regarding the distribution of intelligence and scholastic achievement as measured by objective tests in specific colleges. Colleges vary greatly in these respects, but counselors do not have the reliable data needed in helping a student to select the college in which he will have the best chance for success. The reports of the high-school graduates, as Strang indicates,⁵ are the counselor's principal source of certain kinds of information about particular colleges: information concerning the attitudes, ideals, and standards of the student body; the social life; and the opportunities for association with wise and understanding persons. And much of this information, undoubtedly, is biased.

To secure the various kinds of information needed about

¹ C. M. McCONN, *Planning for College* (New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company, Inc., 1937), 267 pp.

² C. E. LOVEJOY, *So You're Going to College?* (New York: Simon and Schuster, Inc., 1940), 383 pp.

³ H. W. HURT and HARRIETT HURT, *The 1939 College Blue Book* (Deland, Fla.: The College Blue Book, 1939), 4th ed., 756 pp.

⁴ C. S. MARSH, *American Universities and Colleges* (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1940), 4th ed., 1120 pp.

⁵ RUTH STRANG, *The Role of the Teacher in Personnel Work* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935), rev. ed., p. 189.

educational institutions of all types, high-school counselors are today greatly in need of the services of some central agency similar to the Occupational Information and Guidance Service of the U.S. Office of Education.

III. FOLLOW-UP

Placing the student in the right school or job does not ensure his adjustment and success. Helping the student to progress requires that his progress be studied and that he be given any special adjustment service needed. Yet this type of service is seldom provided. When a follow-up study is made, it is usually limited to a check made primarily for purposes of research. Only occasionally does a school report that such an inventory or follow-up study has resulted in efforts or plans to provide the help shown to be needed.

Follow-up has an important place in research, but it also has a service aspect. When it includes assistance as well as a check on the activities of graduates and of school leavers, the high school offers a number of services to its former students: assistance in seeking opportunities for advancement and in preparing for them, assistance in changing from one job or from one school to another, assistance in making adjustments to new conditions and in removing causes of dissatisfaction, assistance in meeting the problems of inadequate preparation and of unemployment, and assistance in planning further education and training.

At times better adjustment service can be provided by the receiving agency—business or industrial concern, college, training school, or the like—than by the high school. But the high school cannot assume that this is always the case. Instead, it must check to see that all is well with its former students. If a boy or a girl is not making satisfactory adjustment and progress, the school must make sure that the needed assistance is offered.

The investigations of personnel practices indicate that follow-up, either as research or as adjustment service, is the least well provided of all the personnel services. In California, the state in which are found some of the best examples of good personnel work, only 13 per cent of the 283 high schools of the Youth Study reported that they were making provision for follow-up.¹ The

¹ A. E. JONES, "Practices in Vocational Guidance in Secondary Schools," *California Schools*, 11:9, January, 1940.

service is not even listed among the practices studied by Cunliffe in New Jersey.¹

High schools are not unaware of the need for and the values to be gained from follow-up activities, but they find it difficult to provide follow-up work that has as its objective both research and service. To do so, they must adopt practices which Kitson describes as so involved and expensive that they are positively overwhelming.² Nevertheless, as Kitson adds, in spite of such difficulties, follow-up services must be provided because, unless they are included as the climax of the program, no claim can be made to performing the task of guidance thoroughly.

¹ R. B. CUNLIFFE, *Guidance Practice in New Jersey* (New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University, 1942), 147 pp.

² H. D. KITSON, "Meditations on Follow-up," *Occupations*, 20:203-204, December, 1941.

CHAPTER XI

STUDYING AND IMPROVING PERSONNEL WORK

Personnel workers can no more expect the personnel program to be static than they can the pupils whom they seek to serve. They must be willing and ready to make the changes needed to provide the flexibility of program and the excellence of services required in order to meet any new need created by changed conditions within or without the school. This means that they must continuously study the personnel program in order to appraise and to increase its effectiveness. To ensure effectiveness, there must be a regular program of inservice education for all engaged in the work; and there must be regular appraisal of the work done.

I. INSERVICE EDUCATION

It is in the more recent literature that inservice education of teachers in personnel work is stressed as a personnel function. In the earlier literature the emphasis is not so much upon the actual training of teachers in the techniques of personnel work as it is upon the development of the personnel point of view among faculty members and upon the maintenance of harmonious relations among students, faculty, and administrators.

Not all writers today stress inservice education as a personnel function. The authorities who believe that the class teacher has only a limited role in personnel work give little attention to this service. They believe that the teachers' main personnel function is the prevention of problems by effective teaching and that delegating personnel services to teachers will not change them into personnel workers or cause them to acquire the personnel point of view. Williamson,¹ for one, asserts that teachers should be encouraged and trained to work with individual students more because of the benefits to be derived by the teachers than because

¹ E. G. WILLIAMSON, *How to Counsel Students* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1939), p. 40.

of any expected gains for personnel work. This is not, however, the prevailing point of view; and it is held by only a few writers, concerned primarily with college personnel work. Writers, as Strang,¹ Hamrin and Erickson,² and Germane and Germane,³ who stress the importance of the role of the teacher in personnel work, give careful attention to inservice education because they know that without training the teacher will not be able to play his role well. This is the point of view commonly expressed in the writings concerned with personnel work in the high school.

1. The need for inservice education. The very newness of personnel work makes inservice training necessary. Few of today's teachers have had preservice training in personnel work, and few of tomorrow's teachers are receiving this training today. Surveys show that only about one-tenth of college graduates who plan to teach in the secondary school receive instruction in personnel work.⁴ Other studies show that those who do receive it often advance further in theory than in practice.⁵ In order to acquire skill in applying theory in practice, these teachers also need assistance through inservice education.

The situation with respect to personnel workers today is very similar to that with respect to high-school teachers at the beginning of the century. The need and demand for trained workers far exceeds the supply, and the training facilities are inadequate. As a result, many teachers are doing personnel work without adequate training for the work. A small proportion have received the training needed; some have received a little preliminary training; but the majority are appointed to the work without reference to either their training or their fitness for the work.

¹ RUTH STRANG, *Pupil Personnel and Guidance* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940), 356 pp.

² S. A. HAMRIN and C. E. ERICKSON, *Guidance in the Secondary School* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1939), 465 pp.

³ C. E. GERMANE and E. G. GERMANE, *Personnel Work in High School* (New York: Silver Burdett Company, 1941), 599 pp.

⁴ V. M. HOUSTON, "A Survey of Guidance Courses in Teachers Colleges," *Occupations*, 17:792-794, June, 1939; E. U. RUGG and others, *National Survey of the Education of Teachers. III. Teacher Education Curricula* (Washington D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1939), pp. 90-91.

⁵ M. E. MILLER and D. W. WEITZEL, "Teachers Consider Themselves Counselors," *Clearing House*, 13:212-215, December, 1938.

Many high-school personnel workers are seeking training through summer study at colleges and universities that offer "courses in guidance and personnel work." To supply these teachers the training they so badly need, the colleges are doing the best that they can, often admittedly having to sacrifice quality to quantity. Because these teachers, who come in search of training, are actually engaged in personnel work and will continue in it whether they receive the training requested or not, the training is seldom refused to even the obviously unqualified person. Only in the case of applicants for the more specialized training are the rules of eligibility enforced. The general training that should be given during a much longer period is often crowded into a short summer session. The colleges recognize that such training is incomplete and inadequate. They hope that it is not superficial. They try to make the teachers aware of the limitations as well as the value of the training given and urge them to return for the additional training needed.

In brief, the counselor-training problems confronting educators during the second quarter of this century are very much the same as the teacher-training problems that confronted them during the first quarter: "higher standards of admission, the nature of the curriculum offerings, extension of facilities to meet the increased demands . . . , and matters of general improvement."¹

The common lack of preservice training in personnel work makes inservice training imperative. Even when high-school teachers are carefully selected for personnel work on the basis of "fitness," few are qualified to begin at the time of selection. The high-school situation described by the director of guidance in one school situation is typical of the average high school. This school discovered when it initiated its personnel program that it had only three teachers with formal training in the techniques of personnel work and that in each case the training was limited to a general introductory course.² Under the leadership of the director of guidance the school worked out a plan for the selection and training of teacher-counselors. And it soon learned that the program had to be a continuous one in order to provide

¹ W. S. ELSBREE, *The American Teacher* (New York: American Book Company, 1939), p. 312.

² CLIFFORD FROELICH, "Fargo Selects and Trains Teachers for Individual Guidance," *Clearing House*, 17:290-293, January, 1943.

training for new inductees, to keep old and new workers in training, to keep them informed concerning changes in needs and new developments in methods, and to help them acquire greater proficiency in practice.

Some administrators consider the inservice training of teacher-counselors one of the most important functions of the personnel specialist. One administrator even concluded that a good inservice education program made university courses unnecessary.¹ Not many persons, however, will accept this point of view. Inservice education will, no doubt, always be needed to supplement college work and to keep personnel workers in training; but inservice education needs to be reinforced by work of a more professional nature at some college, university, or other training center. It should never be considered an adequate substitute for the more thorough professional training.

Some writers suggest that high schools try to make concurrent provision for university and inservice education. Williamson and Hahn make two proposals.² They recommend that the inservice program include seminars (or workshops) directed by workers from near-by colleges and that financial subsidies be made to teachers in order to enable them to take college courses in personnel work during vacation periods or during leaves of absence granted for this purpose.

2. Inservice education procedures. The procedures adopted for inservice education purposes range all the way from an occasional faculty meeting on guidance to an elaborate program for training in clinical counseling. A good program will include a variety of procedures.

The faculty-meeting plan was one of the earliest proposed and is one still widely used. As recently as 1932 Brewer stated that because personnel work was in its pioneer stages, little definite advice could be offered with regard to preparing for it.³ He did, however, suggest the use of faculty meetings for training purposes.⁴ The following year Koos and Kefauver also limited

¹ A. R. DITTRICK, "The Teacher and Guidance," *Ohio Schools*, 18:138, March, 1940.

² E. G. WILLIAMSON and M. E. HAHN, *Introduction to High School Counseling* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1940), pp. 283-284.

³ J. M. BREWER, *Education as Guidance* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932), p. 160.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 590.

their suggestions to faculty meetings for considering local problems in student personnel work and for studying "successive chapters of some book or books on guidance."¹ Writers today continue to recommend faculty meetings and professional reading as inservice-training procedures. Some suggest that the meetings be improved through such methods as the use of outside speakers; careful planning over a long period of time; scheduling the meetings as a regular activity of the school; and securing better teacher participation through reports of experiences, discussions of problems, and exchange of ideas.

Experience has proved that study groups, conferences, workshops, and institutes are more helpful than faculty meetings or other forms of the lecture method. Experience has also proved that these procedures are more useful when directed by a trained leader and conducted according to democratic methods. Instead of assembling in order to hear about guidance, teachers come together in small groups to try to secure through cooperative study and planning an improved program of personnel services. The trained leader is not there to tell them what to do; he is there to act as a guide and to be ready to respond to their call for expert assistance.

The trained director does not confuse leadership with authoritative supervision. Instead of intruding into teachers' rooms to observe critically their performance, he asks them to watch his performance (demonstration) and to make criticisms and suggestions for improvement. He realizes that an important function incumbent upon any leader is to develop leadership in the group by encouraging it on the part of each teacher in accordance with that person's interest and ability. He also knows that development of leadership and continuous professional growth on the part of all teachers require that all who take part in personnel work have an opportunity to participate in planning the work, in making decisions, in assuming responsibility for carrying out the decisions, in sharing experiences, and in cooperatively evaluating their achievements.

To facilitate provision for a democratically administered program of inservice education in personnel work that will lead to unity of purpose and to continuous improvement of the work,

¹L. V. KOOS and G. N. KEFAUVER, *Guidance in Secondary Schools* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1933), p. 591.

the services of a trained leader are essential. The personnel program usually fails, according to Strang,¹ when the leader is selected from the faculty and has little more knowledge, skill, and insight than have those whom he is to direct. To provide teachers the needed assistance, the leader must be more skilled than they are in the methods of studying students; he must have greater knowledge than they have about how to interpret behavior, how to change attitudes, and how to deal with emotional problems; he must have richer experience than they in personnel work and must be more resourceful in suggesting types of experiences needed by different students.² Therefore, as Germane and Germane say:

Unless there is someone upon the staff who is prepared professionally for counseling and who is held responsible for directing and assisting the teachers and administrators in this all-important, detailed, labor-and-time-consuming task—personnel work—the job will never be done right. Attempts will be sporadic and, in the end, they will die out.³

If this is true, in setting up a program for inservice education in personnel work, then, the first and perhaps the most important step is the one to be taken by the administrators—provision for the services of a trained, qualified leader.

The study group is most successful as a training procedure when the group meets regularly according to some plan and follows a definite program of study. This was the plan adopted at Providence, R.I., when the personnel program was new and few trained workers were to be had.⁴ After the faculty advisers had been selected by a screening process, they were organized into small groups. With the help of the director of guidance, the groups studied practical personnel problems along with assigned topics, such as group-guidance methods, use of tests, and follow-up work—three emphases in the Providence program.

¹ RUTH STRANG, "Why Guidance Programs Fail—and Succeed," *Educational Method*, 19:321-326, March, 1940.

² F. C. ROSECRANCE, "The Staff Needed for the Development of an Effective Guidance Service," *Thirty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, Part I, 1938, p. 276.

³ GERMANE and GERMANE, *op. cit.*, p. 304. Passage italicized in the original.

⁴ R. D. ALLEN, *Organization and Supervision of Guidance in Public Education* (New York: Inor Publishing Company, 1934), pp. 378-388.

New topics were studied each term, and practical projects were provided in order to relate group study to the personnel work actually being done by the individual teachers. It was soon evident that this all-round practical experience and training was contributing to the coordination as well as to the improvement of the work.

Certain modifications might make this plan an even more effective one. Teachers might participate more wholeheartedly were they permitted to study topics selected by them instead of topics assigned to them by directors. Better working relations might result were teachers permitted to organize their groups and to select their group leaders instead of having to work in groups set up and directed by external authority. When study groups are controlled and directed cooperatively by the members, teachers may not acquire so much factual knowledge as they would were the study material selected and organized by supervisors. But they are more likely to acquire deeper meanings, greater insight, and better understanding; and the new meanings are more likely to function immediately in improved personnel work. Also, better working conditions might result were study meetings scheduled on schooltime. In the small high school, however, this might be difficult and not always possible.

Other procedures frequently used for inservice education are described as "conferences," "institutes," "workshops," and "case conferences." Every one of these procedures, however, is described at some time as a "conference." In reference to inservice education, this term is generally used correctly. Here, in contrast to its use in reference to student group work, it denotes a meeting for discussion and interchange of views rather than a lecture, although the lecture is often added. Allen used the word "conference" in describing the Providence study-group plan. Other writers use it in describing the occasionally held institute or workshop and the regularly held clinic or case conference. In the same way the terms "institute" and "workshop" are commonly made interchangeable. The term "workshop," however, is used more often than "institute" when the emphasis is upon promoting teacher activity and upon establishing easy, cordial relations between teachers and administrators.

In one city the conference was used in the form of an institute to provide inservice training for both school and nonschool

personnel workers.¹ In addition to conferences on general and specific personnel subjects, the program included seminars and demonstrations of case-conference procedures in order to give definite assistance of a more specialized nature to the coordinators and leaders of the different school and community programs. This conference proved to be especially valuable because it contributed to community coordination as well as to inservice education.

In a similar manner, another conference contributed to faculty-student coordination.² To improve the school personnel program, an intensive inservice training program was provided the week before school opened in the fall. Under the direction of two authorities on secondary-school personnel work, Hamrin and Strang, the teachers, studied ways of identifying student problems, counseling techniques, and group activities. The students took part through discussions of their problems and of the help that they thought the teachers could give them with these problems.

A few schools are so fortunate that they can take their problems to a regular training laboratory or guidance clinic and observe the methods of the trained worker. When this is done, the schoolworker gains much needed knowledge about child development, the significance of personal data, and the sources of help with adjustment problems of particular students. Other schools are using the school clinic or case conference as a substitute for this observation in a professional clinic. And the teachers are finding that the substitute has all the advantages that learning through doing usually has over learning through watching others do. In the opinion of some teachers, this most recently developed procedure is the most effective.

Some schools use the case conference at first primarily for the purpose of studying individual cases (see Chap. V). Later they discover its usefulness for teaching purposes. They find it a quick, effective method for inservice education when they have the services of a trained worker to direct the conference and to help the teachers analyze and evaluate their work. And the

¹ J. C. ALDRICH, "Utilizing Community Resources for In-service Training of Counselors," *School Review*, 48:193-196, March, 1940.

² H. F. MOSSMAN, "An In-service Guidance Week," *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women*, 7:31-38, October, 1943.

director finds the conference a quick and easy method for securing faculty understanding and support.

At first the case conference is best used primarily for study of the less specialized techniques and of such general topics as the meaning and interpretation of test scores, school and community facilities, sources of information, and the like. The introductory work completed, the conference should then be used for more careful study of representative cases and for more detailed study of specific problems and the particular techniques useful in dealing with them.

The skillfully conducted case conference helps to increase the usefulness of other inservice procedures. Through the conference, teachers become aware of their need for more knowledge of psychology, mental hygiene, and personnel work and, as a result, may make better use of group study and of the school's professional library. Also, through its group presentation, analysis, and interpretation of data the conference helps the teachers to detect errors in their individual diagnoses and prognoses, to achieve a more scientific attitude toward a student's problem, and to abandon misconceptions concerning the distinctions between normal and problem children. The conference may also become a valuable weapon for destroying misconceptions concerning the noninstructional services needed within the school and community.

Some teachers may resist the case conference even when they receive preliminary training in its use. Like any other professional person, the teacher feels the strength of his position and may need this strength for the solution of his own emotional problems.¹ His "professional attitude" may be dictated by his unresolved conflicts. He may react to the conference as though it were the critical, faultfinding parent; he may even come to rely upon it as upon the overprotective mother. In the interest of the teacher and the child, the staff members in charge of the conference must handle such teacher reactions as tactfully as possible and, if possible, put the conference to good use for educating the teacher and for helping him with his problem.

Some authorities point out that because teacher growth is as

¹ I. T. BROADWIN, "The Role of the School Clinic in Educating Teachers in a Mental-hygiene Attitude toward the Child," *Mental Hygiene*, 17:111, January, 1933.

important as pupil growth, the inservice education program should contribute to a teacher's personal development as well as to his instruction. Frequently the case conference contributes to the stimulation and the development of individual teachers. In their study of student behavior, teachers gain knowledge of the psychology of behavior that helps them to gain insight into some of their own personal problems. Some writers believe, however, that teachers should receive direct assistance. Hamrin and Erickson, in particular, contend that if teachers are the key persons in the guidance of students, school administrators must assume responsibility for furnishing them personnel services. They are convinced that "an important factor in the revitalization of all education" lies in the solution of the teachers' adjustment problems—"personal frustrations, health difficulties, social maladjustments, recreational needs, educational problems."¹ Strang also believes that teachers should receive guidance service and suggests that school specialists serve as consultants to teachers and supply them information and assistance with their own adjustment problems as well as with those of their students.²

Only a few schools are yet providing specialists to assist either students or teachers with their adjustment problems. But some schools are studying these problems through the regular inservice procedures in an effort to bring about a correction of undesirable conditions creating some of the teachers' problems. In one school system a workshop in mental hygiene was conducted for this purpose. Together, teachers and administrators considered the items presented by the teachers as conditions that were interfering with their well-being and adjustment. According to the report, "as a consequence of this co-operative study some of the principles developed in the workshop program were applied through practical contributions in school administration to bring about better conditions of mental hygiene in the school system."³ When inservice education results in improved working conditions for teachers as well as in their increased skill and knowledge, the results in the form of improved services for students will

¹ HAMRIN and ERICKSON, *op. cit.*, p. 439.

² STRANG, *op. cit.*, pp. 289, 319.

³ NORMAN FENTON and A. M. DAVIS, "A Practical Procedure for the In-service Workshop in Mental Hygiene," *California Journal of Elementary Education*, 11:160, February-May, 1943.

undoubtedly be greater than when knowledge and skill are the sole results.

II. RESEARCH AND EVALUATION

Research and evaluation with the object of improvement in personnel work is held an essential service when personnel workers are concerned for the future as well as for the present effectiveness of the personnel program. Too often workers take for granted the effectiveness of their work. Without research they can never be sure that it is what they believe it to be, for mere opinion without objective evidence does not suffice. No worker can be perfectly honest with himself and refuse to analyze the results of his work, its effects upon the behavior patterns of his students. He cannot, Eurich and Wrenn assert, "dismiss the problem of evaluation with such an implicit Jehovah-like, egocentric faith in himself and what he is doing that he never questions the effectiveness of his work or program."¹

It is, however, a great temptation to dismiss the problem; for it is neither a simple nor an easy one. For the best evaluation is the one most difficult to make, one which cannot be made in scientifically exact terms but one to which an approximation must be sought by various means, quantitative and qualitative, if evaluation is to be genuine and profitable. This desired and difficult type of evaluation is appraisal in terms of student adjustment—in-school, out-of-school, and post-high-school adjustment. Appraisal in terms of the primary objective of personnel work—the optimum development of the individual—or in terms of its ultimate values, many of which lie, as Kitson says,² in the spiritual realm, is impossible. But this is no more true of personnel work than it is of any other area of education. In all education the ultimate outcomes and the highest values cannot be reduced to quantitative expressions and are, therefore, perhaps forever beyond exact measurement.

Nevertheless, the existence of immeasurables and intangibles

¹ A. C. EURICH and C. G. WRENN, "Appraisal of Student Characteristics and Needs," *Thirty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, Part I, 1938, p. 32.

² H. D. KITSON and MARGARET CRANE, "Measuring Results of Vocational Guidance: A Summary of Attempts," *Occupations*, 16:842, June, 1938.

does not release personnel workers from the obligation to do the research needed in order to learn whether students are making satisfactory or unsatisfactory adjustments; to discover how their services are contributing or are failing to contribute to good adjustment; to determine the additions, modifications, and other changes needed in methods and services; and to secure the information—vocational, educational, and the like—needed in helping students to attain the desired adjustment.

Any significant piece of research in personnel work is difficult because of a number of complexities: the complex of forces, school and nonschool, controlled and uncontrolled, affecting the outcome; the complex of problems and the complexity of specific problems presented by students; the complex of factors in a student's personality; and the complexity of counseling and of the other procedures used in personnel work. The difficulty of the task is further increased by a lack of adequate criteria for appraising a service and by the amount of time required for fruition of the work. When the proper amount of time has elapsed, subjects are not always available for study. When they are located, appraisal of their adjustment is difficult because all usable criteria are imperfect.

This situation was well illustrated by the Thorndike attempt to evaluate vocational guidance,¹ an attempt that provoked vigorous protests from a number of the vocational-guidance authorities. To personnel workers Thorndike's analysis of vocational success into its supposedly constituent elements—kind of work done, level of the job, length of the job, interest or satisfaction in the job, responsibility of the job, weekly wages, probability of unemployment, opportunity for increased earnings, and the like—with the assumption that they combine in arithmetical fashion to make the success or failure of an individual seemed an oversimplification of the problem. To seek a picture of an individual's success by adding these components is, in the opinion of Viteles,² analogous to seeking an appreciation of a mosaic by counting the colored bits of stone. Both instances

¹ E. L. THORNDIKE and others, *Prediction of Vocational Success* (New York: Institute of Educational Research, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934), 284 pp.

² M. S. VITELES, "A Dynamic Criterion," *Occupations*, 14:965, June, 1936.

illustrate the fallacy of reduction; both lose sight of the essential feature—the pattern.

If the research task is so difficult, what, then, can be done about it? What can and what will be done is not certain. The literature does show, however, what is being done. Some workers, appalled by the difficulty of the task, are throwing up their hands in a gesture of helplessness and are doing little else. Others believe that, to be valid, research must be scientifically exact and that, to overcome the difficulties presented by the complexities, simplification is imperative; and so they are evaluating the students' adjustments and achievements in terms of marks and scores. They will consider trends and patterns when trends and patterns can be expressed quantitatively. Other workers, however, are interested in seeking an understanding of them now even though they cannot measure them. They seek an understanding of trends and patterns, of their nature and development through analyses of personal documents, of case studies, and of records of observation. These investigators find the results of insightful synthesis of material from comprehensive sources more significant than statistical analyses of masses of data. They check students' satisfaction with services received and consider the qualitative aspects of their answers as well as the number of students making specific responses to particular items. They study the attitudes and activities of students over a considerable period of time to determine the development of attitudes and behavior patterns and the permanence of changes that take place. They try to check the effectiveness of their work experimentally by the cross-section approach, and they find that they attain more meaningful results when they consider case-study data along with statistical data.

The members of this last group are doing the difficult task. They are finding that in educational research, as in industrial, "it is much easier to measure nonsignificant factors than to be content with developing a first approximation to the significant."¹ Their research may not always be exact, objective, and thoroughly scientific; but the results are probably more meaningful than they would be were the studies more limited, the methods more objective, and the findings more exact.

¹ ELTON MAYO, quoted without source in Kimball Young, *Personality and Problems of Adjustment* (New York: F. S. Crofts & Co., 1940), title page.

Many of the important, more extensive, and more difficult investigations that are being carried on in high-school personnel work today are being done in schools that have staff members trained in research methods or in schools that are doing the work directly or indirectly under the supervision of some college or university. Along with specialization, integration and coordination are also provided. To contribute to the professionalization of all personnel work, research must be made an integral part of the personnel program and not relegated to a separate bureau or staff.¹ Also, complete coordination of all research activities of the school requires not only that the research activities of all parts of the personnel program be coordinated but also that the research activities of the personnel division be coordinated with those of other divisions, such as health and curriculum. Data gathered in one division are often needed by another.

The literature shows that research can be done and is being done by schools in which the staff members are comparatively untrained in research methodology. Three general types are reported: Surveys are made to collect information needed in the instruction and counseling of students. Programs are measured by a standard pattern of desired criteria. And follow-up studies are made of the students who have had the benefit of the services being appraised.

The surveys reported most frequently by schools are the ones made in order to gather information about occupational and educational opportunities in the community. Less frequently, schools report survey studies of a community's health and recreational facilities. During the war years much interest was expressed in surveys made to get the facts about juvenile delinquency, but few such surveys were reported. The results of a survey are usually published in the form of spot maps, graphs, tables, and general descriptive statements. This type of research is most profitable when the survey is a community as well as a school project and when young people as well as adults take part in the work.

Interest in evaluating high-school programs by checking them against some accepted criteria has been stimulated by the

¹ ESTHER MCD. LLOYD-JONES and MARGARET R. SMITH, *A Student Personnel Program for Higher Education* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1938), pp. 83-85.

Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards.¹ To help the high schools learn the characteristics of an effective secondary-school program and the techniques useful for identifying good ones, the general committee in charge of the Cooperative Study developed, twice revised, and tried out in 200 high schools a set of evaluative criteria that gives the high schools an efficient, up-to-date method for appraising the various aspects of their programs.²

Other criteria can profitably be used for appraising a personnel program, but high schools have found the Cooperative Study Standards especially helpful. When these criteria are used, the investigation, because it is a cooperative one, helps to stimulate the interest of all staff members in an intensive study of their programs and problems. Before the criteria are applied, philosophy must be formulated and objectives clearly stated. This is important because, the more clearly the objectives are stated, the more definite can be the evaluation of their attainment. The part is not permitted to appear the whole; for no part of the school program—administrative, curriculum, personnel, or any other—is evaluated apart from consideration of the entire school situation. And when schools give consideration to the judgments of students and parents as well as to those of faculty and outside experts, they make the evaluation truly a cooperative study.

The material developed for studying the personnel program consists of evaluative items containing check lists for appraising the various aspects of the program: general nature and organization; staff; basic information about students; the various areas of special service; results of personnel work; and special characteristics of the program, such as best and least adequate elements, recent and planned improvements, present and past research. The material also includes graphic devices for showing the summary of the investigation.

The Cooperative Study has contributed to the improvement of

¹ W. C. EELLS and others, "The Cooperative Study of Secondary Education," *North Central Association Quarterly*, 13:258-280, January, 1939; E. G. JOHNSTON, "Contributions from the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-school Principals*, 23:136-142, March, 1939.

² *Evaluative Criteria*, 1940 ed. (Washington, D.C.: Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, 1940), 175 pp.

personnel work not only by providing an excellent set of standards for appraising a personnel program but also by clearly revealing the great need for improvement. One report showed that in the 200 schools surveyed "the guidance service is probably less well organized and is operating less effectively than any other phase of secondary school activity."¹ The use of the evaluative criteria is now helping interested schools to discover where changes and improvements must be made if this situation is to be corrected.

Follow-up studies are seldom made by high schools for adjustment-service purposes, but they are frequently made for evaluation purposes. Usually a follow-up study means work directed toward learning the fate of former students in order to learn whether the school prepared them properly for their postschool life and to determine what changes in the school are indicated by the experiences of these students. Such studies can be exceedingly valuable for measuring the effectiveness of school practices and for discovering the need for new services and for changes in school offerings and methods.

Interest in this type of research has been stimulated by the investigations made by the American Youth Commission, the Regents' Inquiry, and other groups during the 1930's and by the elaborate follow-up plan developed by the National Association of Secondary-school Principals at the beginning of the 1940's.² As a result, hundreds of follow-up studies have been made and reported. To learn the effectiveness of their programs and practices, schools question former students about many matters which generally include one or more of the following: the extent of employment; types of jobs held; job satisfaction; accuracy of vocational and educational recommendations made by advisers; the reasons for the students' leaving school; the postschool adjustment problems of the students; the incidence and causes of failure, academic and occupational; and the relationship between type of job held and amount of education, particular courses taken, and/or school marks received. Some schools seem to be making good use of the findings in seeking

¹ M. L. ALTSTETTER, "Guidance Service in Two Hundred Secondary Schools," *Occupations*, 16:514, March, 1938.

² EDWARD LANDY and associates, "Occupational Adjustment and the Schools," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-school Principals*, 24:1-154, November, 1940.

needed improvements; others seem to be making very little use of the survey results. When a follow-up survey is made for no other purpose than to make a survey, research is little more than busywork.

Follow-up work is less likely to degenerate into busywork when it is made a regular school service. The value that it can have as a regular continuous service has been well demonstrated in the schools of Providence.¹ In this school system regular 1-, 3-, and 5-year studies are made of former students by the workers who served them as counselors during their high-school years. The reports of all schools for each group are summarized and interpreted in a composite report for the use of counselors and placement officers. The personnel workers find that the continuous contact with former students strengthens their present performance of the services. The individual reports of their former counselees not only help them to evaluate the counseling and other services given these students but also enable them to keep in touch with what is happening in youth's world outside the school. In addition, these individual reports, along with the master report, supply interesting and helpful material for use in group-guidance classes. The counselors find that many students give more attention to the information received from these reports of former students than they give to the same information when it is obtained from books, teachers, and parents.

Other schools have adopted the Providence plan. They find that greater improvement can be made in the personnel services through continuous follow-up work than through some other more expensive and more difficult methods of study. When, as at Providence, the counselor serves a student throughout his high-school years, every year each counselor is engaged in a follow-up study; but no counselor is engaged at any one time in more than one study. The 1-year check is made by means of a post-card questionnaire, which often brings back a letter giving in detail an account of the writer's life since graduation. The more pleasant and satisfying the relations of the former student with his counselor, the more likely he is to make this kind of response. The 3- and 5-year checks require the use of a more extensive questionnaire. Some counselors gain not only valuable information but also a real satisfaction from following up the young people whom they guided for several years, from renewing

¹ ALLEN, *op. cit.*, pp. 297-308.

old contacts and hearing about the success and problems of these former student-friends. And, by knowing the outcome of student plans made during other years, they can be more wisely useful in assisting the students of this year in making intelligent choices and plans.

Some authorities, as Myers¹ and Lloyd-Jones,² point out that, in addition to participation in research of local significance, personnel workers have an obligation to participate in research of a wider interest and value. All personnel workers should display a scientific attitude and an interest in contributing to the development of professional knowledge in their field. They can show this attitude and interest in two ways: in being willing to contribute the time needed for giving information requested and for cooperating in other ways in the solution of problems of national or regional interest, and in keeping informed with respect to research studies pertinent to the field. The worker who adopts techniques and instruments without studying the available investigations of them is considered as negligent and culpable as the physician who uncritically adopts at face value new drugs and operational techniques that he reads about in his medical journals.³ The worker should not only be interested in tested facts concerning the procedures that he follows, but he should also seek appraisal of his own use of any instruments or techniques that he may adopt.

The two services discussed in this chapter, inservice education and research, and the one to be considered in the next chapter, coordination, are not received by the student directly. For this reason, these services have been questioned as being rightly called "student personnel services." But the student is still the ultimate consumer since these services are directed toward improvement of the other services received by him more directly. Without these three particular services—inservice education, research, and coordination—the student will find the other services less good. In some instances, without these services, he may find the other services not provided at all; or he may find them so poorly provided that he is scarcely aware that they are provided at all.

¹ G. E. MYERS, *Principles and Techniques of Vocational Guidance* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1941), pp. 328-329.

² LLOYD-JONES and SMITH, *op. cit.*, pp. 280-281.

³ EURICH and WRENN, *op. cit.*, p. 82.

CHAPTER XII.

PROVIDING CONSISTENT UNIFIED SERVICE FOR THE INDIVIDUAL

Only when personnel work is in the state of coordination described by Cowley as "the state of being harmoniously organized, each part meshing smoothly with every other part"¹ will students receive consistent, unified personnel services from a staff of teachers and specialists working toward the same end.

When personnel work is not harmoniously organized, students may be confused by contradictory services received from a number of guides pointing in different directions. Comparing an unsupervised staff of personnel workers to a ship without a rudder, Lloyd-Jones calls attention to the unfortunate results when specialists "all let forth their unrestrained, uncoordinated efforts on a helpless student body."² When personnel work is in this uncoordinated state, the program is planned in accordance with the needs and interests of a group of specialists; it does not have the flexibility and efficiency that are made possible by coordination and that are needed in order "to forge individually planned patterns and experiences for each pupil in terms of his potentialities and needs."³

Lack of coordination is detrimental to student welfare. It is also detrimental to personnel work itself. Failure to coordinate the work in the past has resulted in failure to develop administrative techniques and to give attention to many details necessary to the success and professionalization of the work. This failure not only has left personnel work miles behind the educational procession with respect to administration, as Cowley says,⁴ but also is causing it to be discredited throughout the country.

¹ W. H. COWLEY, "The Strategy of Coordination," *Occupations*, 16:724, May, 1938.

² ESTHER MCD. LLOYD-JONES and MARGARET R. SMITH, *A Student Personnel Program for Higher Education* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1938), pp. 38-44.

³ E. G. WILLIAMSON, "The Coordination of Personnel Services in Schools," *Educational Record*, Supplement 15, 23:20, January, 1942.

⁴ COWLEY, *loc. cit.*

Uncoordinated and proceeding independently, many personnel workers are not seeing the whole personnel picture; some are even seeing parts as wholes. Without perspective regarding their own field, they are unable to present a united front to their colleagues and administrators and, as a result, very often find themselves neglected. As long as personnel workers operate independently and at times at cross-purposes with one another, they can expect to meet indifference, lack of faculty cooperation, and even antagonism.

Only when each part of the personnel program meshes smoothly with every other part and the total with every other part of education will personnel work be able to carry its share of education's load. To mobilize its full strength for the task, it must coordinate its efforts within the school, the community, the state, and the nation.

I. COORDINATION WITHIN THE SYSTEM THROUGH ORGANIZATION

Coordination of personnel work within a school system is largely a matter of organization. The plans of organization now in operation are commonly one of three general types: (1) A central bureau formulates policy, draws up plans, makes decisions, directs and supervises the personnel work carried on in the different schools. (2) The work is coordinated through a central bureau of personnel work, but the individual high school is considered the important unit. (3) Each school acts as an independent unit with the personnel work of the different schools nominally coordinated through a central administration office which controls all divisions of education—business, instruction, personnel, and the others.

In giving their support to the second type of organization, the authorities on personnel work are expressing views in harmony with the democratic conceptions of our culture and in keeping with the views expressed by authorities on school administration and by other leaders in educational thought.

The first plan is the line-staff type of organization used by the Army and "big business." Workers at the bottom are entrusted with very little of the thinking and planning; they are to carry out the plans and decisions made by the officers at the top. This type of organization is obviously unfavorable to local

initiative and to independent, creative activity on the part of individual workers in different schools.

When the third plan is the one followed, high schools work independently and often in competition with one another. In some communities that have this plan of organization students find an inequality of opportunity for personnel services. Students in one school are better served than students in others; for some schools are very well equipped and staffed for the work, whereas others do not have even the minimum essentials. Instead of thinking in terms of the needs of all the boys and girls in the community, many teachers and administrators think only in terms of the boys and girls whom they serve. Some are willing to seek more for students who already have much, although to do so may mean that other students who now have little will not have more and may even have less. In the case of institutions, as in the case of individuals, rugged individualism and laissez-faire policies may be "good" for the strong; but they are probably always bad for the weak.

The second plan is the one followed at Providence and at Milwaukee. In its best form it combines centralization with local freedom. It provides the advantages of centralized leadership, release of creative capacity throughout the system, and equality of opportunity for an acceptable minimum of personnel services for all students in the community. The central bureau acts as a clearinghouse for all school units. Its staff members serve in an advisory rather than a supervisory capacity. They supply professional advice upon request and make the services of the consulting experts available to all schools alike. They do not seek uniformity of procedures and content in all schools; but through an education program, which includes publications and demonstrations, they work to secure the progressive improvement of all school personnel programs. Their function is not to criticize, expose, and control but to help the individual schools to discover their strengths and weaknesses and to help workers in these schools to increase strengths and to correct weaknesses.

II. COORDINATION WITHIN THE INSTITUTION

1. Centralization of responsibility. Coordination within a high school is largely a matter of leadership. In each school the

personnel services need to be synthesized and integrated through concentration of administrative responsibility in a central person in order that definite responsibility may be placed for all parts of the work, in order that each worker may know his particular responsibility and how he is to contribute to the total program, and in order that the total program may be improved through the establishment of definite standards and provision for inservice education of all workers concerned in the philosophy and methodology of the work.

Some schools have tried to attain coordination through a committee rather than through one person. Cowley opposes this plan,¹ pointing out that it has been tried and found unsatisfactory. He maintains that coordination through a chief personnel office is the best technique so far discovered. Other writers agree and caution that this establishment of leadership in one person must mean concentration of responsibility rather than authority, that the coordinator should always "emphasize those functions which involve leadership, stimulation, and special competence, and hold in abeyance those functions involving authority and direction."²

In all high schools the nominal head of the personnel program is the principal, for in him is centralized all administrative responsibility. When the principal is not trained in personnel work, he often delegates responsibility for leadership in this area to some staff member who does have the training and the other necessary qualifications. If the principal does not understand the nature of the work and is unwilling to delegate the leadership to someone who does, the program will have little chance to progress. Without a competent leader the different personnel workers will go their way independently, dividing the poor student among them. Even when the principal is trained in the work and the school is small, he should not try, some writers believe,³ to serve as the coordinator. Instead, he should assign

¹ COWLEY, *op. cit.* p. 726.

² P. W. L. COX and J. C. DUFF, *Guidance by the Classroom Teacher* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1941), p. 227.

³ R. D. ALLEN, "How a Principal Can Direct Guidance," *Occupations*, 16:15-20, October, 1937; C. E. GERMANE and E. G. GERMANE, *Personnel Work in High School* (New York: Silver Burdett Company, 1941), pp. 59-60; D. W. LEFEVER, A. M. TURRELL, and H. I. WEITZEL, *Principles and Techniques of Guidance* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1941), p. 105.

the work to some qualified person, who can do the work less expensively, and in this way free himself for other important administrative functions that should not be entrusted to another person.

Even when the principal does delegate to another person the administrative responsibility for coordinating personnel work, he is still the keyman of personnel work within the school. For the program to function effectively and efficiently, the principal must accept and be willing to advance its objectives; he must be willing to provide as far as possible conditions favorable to the work; and he must promote the work through encouragement and constructive supervision of the workers taking part in its performance. Unless the principal is convinced of the value of the work, it will be difficult for the director and the specialists to gain the needed faculty support and cooperation.

The person to whom the responsibility is assigned should be a trained and competent leader and should be released from all other work for at least half time. Three factors make such a leader necessary—time, competency, and responsibility. The endless amount of pertinent detail of personnel work will be neglected if the coordinator has to do personnel work in addition to another full-time assignment. Without training he cannot coordinate and direct the different services, nor can he offer teachers the training and other assistance that they may need. Then, too, until responsibility is fixed for all parts of the work through a competent leader, standards and attainable goals may not be set.

Coordination of all personnel work within a school requires more than centralization of responsibility in a trained leader. It also requires centralization of responsibility for the guidance of individual students, coordination of the school's physical resources for the work, and some general plan of organization to facilitate cooperative effort on the part of all persons participating in the work.

There must be coordination of counseling as well as administrative coordination. There must be someone in the school who sees the student as a whole person, who is informed of the findings of all other schoolworkers concerning him, who considers the particular student his special responsibility and studies him from all angles in order to be able to furnish him consistent, integrated

assistance at all times. This person is the one who supplies the "centralized coordination of decentralized personnel services" that Williamson considers necessary for the maximum effectiveness of the various services for individual students.¹

Coordinative responsibility includes coordination of the physical resources of the school.² It may not always be possible or desirable to locate all personnel workers in the same section of the building; but all should be easily accessible to teachers, students, and other personnel workers. Communication should be facilitated so that information can be collected and distributed quickly and efficiently. When records are not readily available, when referrals are difficult because of the inaccessibility of certain workers, when information is received after the student has left the conference room, inadequate counseling is provided; and students may be confused by inconsistent help from workers following different and perhaps conflicting policies. Coordination is then defeated, not aided.

Writers, as a rule, do not attempt to suggest organizational plans for personnel work within a school. They know that the organization of the personnel program must harmonize with the general school policy if it is, as one authority says, to have "institutional significance in the light of the philosophy" of the whole.³ Most writers agree with Cox and Duff that it is unwise, if not useless, to introduce a personnel program emphasizing freedom of choice into a school where the spirit of authoritarianism prevails.⁴ The needed reform will not be secured through initiation of a plan of organization and a program of work greatly at variance with the policy of the rest of the school. It can come only through the "gradual focusing of the attention of administrators and teachers on pupils and their growth."⁵ Because this is true, the authorities do not offer final complex

¹ WILLIAMSON, *op. cit.*, p. 16.

² Williamson and Hahn believe that schools can achieve better coordination by making more efficient use of the school plant. They present a floor plan for the personnel office to show how equipment and facilities can aid coordination by providing optimal working conditions. E. G. WILLIAMSON and M. E. HAHN, *Introduction to High School Counseling* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1940), p. 268.

³ LLOYD-JONES and SMITH, *op. cit.*, p. 44.

⁴ COX and DUFF, *op. cit.*, pp. 206-208.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 208.

plans of organization. Each school's plan must be unique, developed progressively over a period of time through a process of trial and error. Plans used in different schools will vary according to the purposes, needs, facilities, and staffs of the schools and according to the interests and desires of the citizens in the communities.

Although the authorities do not offer specific plans of organization for adoption by high schools in general, they do advocate that the plan followed have certain characteristics and that it not have certain others. They find the line-staff type of organization a no more desirable plan for coordinating personnel work within a school than for coordinating personnel work within a school system.

Whatever plan is adopted, it should be one in keeping with modern democratic conceptions of school administration; and, as stressed in Chap. XI, the person to whom administrative responsibility is entrusted should be one able and willing to serve as leader rather than as authoritative supervisor. This person should be appointed to the position of leadership on the bases of training, professional knowledge and skill, ability to work cooperatively with others, and willingness to recognize and to utilize the leadership ability and other strengths of his coworkers. To make the appointment on any other basis would be unintelligent and wasteful. Unfortunately, there was a time when appointments to administrative positions were made primarily on the basis of maleness. The assumption was that a man, even though a mediocre educator, would always be preferred as an administrator over a woman, however good an educator she might be. While this point of view has not given way entirely to a more enlightened one, yet it is definitely on the wane; and few persons today would openly advocate maleness as the prime consideration in assigning workers to administrative positions.

Throughout this book "he" has been used in referring to the leader or to the individual personnel worker or teacher, but it should be understood that the term is used in the generic sense only. In no way does the use of "he" imply that the leader should be a man rather than a woman. Some of the best personnel programs in the country today have been developed and are being administered by women. During wartimes women had to take over many additional important administrative positions,

previously held by men; and they usually proved their ability to perform the offices of such positions as efficiently and as satisfactorily as did those for whom they substituted.

The organizational plan adopted by a particular school should not only be one in keeping with democratic conceptions, but it should also be one in keeping with the basic principles of human organization as exemplified in the family, in which the mother is mother of boys as well as of girls and the father is father of girls as well as of boys. Similarly, deans of boys should be counselors of girls as well as counselors of boys; and deans of girls should serve boys as well as girls. Girls should not feel constrained, because of custom or regulations, to approach only women personnel workers whenever they wish assistance; nor should boys have to hang around the corridors waiting for a chance opportunity to speak to the dean of girls and in this way obtain the help which they do not feel free to ask her for in the same way as the girls do. Deans should work with both boys and girls; and boys and girls should feel free to seek counseling and other assistance from the person with whom they find it easiest to work, man or woman. Sex is a no more satisfactory basis for determining spheres of influence and service than it is for determining the person to be assigned administrative responsibility for the program of services.

2. Coordination with other parts of the school program. All parts of a school are interdependent. No authority advocates a personnel staff completely separate from the teaching staff. The writers, on the whole, accept with Williamson decentralization and coordination of staff functions as a desirable characteristic of an effective personnel program.¹ Decentralization through the incorporation of the personnel point of view in every faculty member is held desirable because it provides a constant and natural contact of teacher-counselors with students and a joint contribution of personnel and instructional workers to discussions and decisions on school procedures and policies.²

To strengthen all school services that contribute to the optimal development of students, personnel workers must be able to work harmoniously with other school people and to gain their willing, intelligent cooperation. Coordination of person-

¹ WILLIAMSON, *op. cit.*, pp. 12-21.

² LLOYD-JONES and SMITH, *op. cit.*, pp. 38-39.

nel work with other parts of the program is more easily obtained when the personnel program is flexible, when it is democratic rather than authoritarian in organization and attitude, when it provides for wide participation in personnel work by other schoolworkers, when it is efficient in the performance of its own functions, and when it provides a program of work that is far-reaching and invigorating and stimulating to the entire school.¹

Personnel workers will not gain the cooperation of high-school teachers by telling them that their methods are all wrong, by telling them what to do and how to do it. Criticizing, condescending to show the correct way, and issuing orders are poor measures for gaining cooperation. They may result in compliance, compliance accompanied, perhaps, by an ill will sufficiently strong to block the success of all that is attempted by the patronizing critics. Consulting teachers, meeting with them for joint consideration and decisions with respect to school procedures and policies, sharing information and exchanging services will, however, promote sympathy and understanding on the part of the faculty and will help to gain their friendly, positive cooperation. Working together around the conference table, teachers and personnel workers gain a better understanding of each others' work—its nature, objectives, and special difficulties. They learn what others know about the needs and problems of particular adolescents and what they are trying to do to help these students in terms of needs and abilities. Such knowledge contributes to the development of mutual respect, to an awareness of a common concern for the welfare of individual boys and girls, to feelings of group loyalty and teamwork, all of which contribute to coordination.

III. COORDINATION WITH THE HOME

The home is the most important and the most difficult unit with which the school needs to coordinate. Traditionally, there has been a separation of the jurisdiction and of the work of these two agencies, but in the child's life there is no separation of the influence of the two institutions. He brings the home influence with him to school and takes the school back home. Joined in

¹ S. A. HAMRIN and C. E. ERICKSON, *Guidance in the Secondary School* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1939), pp. 360-362.

their influence, home and school should be joined in their efforts in order to make their influence a more potent constructive force in the child's life.

The understanding parent and the understanding teacher are probably the people best able to supply the three basic needs of the student—understanding, affection, and security. Working together, they can supply the integrative experiences needed to help him to develop personal and social competency. Unsympathetic and not understanding, either one can be a strong disintegrative force in his life.

Because schools often delay making contact with the home until the student is "in trouble," parents and teachers are frequently handicapped at first meetings by critical and defensive attitudes. Attitudes of understanding and appreciation—the attitudes necessary for successful cooperation—will replace attitudes of antagonism and distrust when interpreting the school to the home and the home to the school is made a regular part of personnel work. To improve home-school relationships as an aid to more wholesome parent-child-teacher relations, personnel workers should supply constructive measures for giving the information and training needed. A number of procedures have proved satisfactory: bulletins, interviews and conferences, visits to school, home visits, parent-teacher-association activities, cooperative projects, and the use of liaison officers.

Students may become more responsible home members; and parents may make home a more cooperative affair after students and parents participate with teachers, principal, and counselor in group discussions and conferences in which all opinions are respected, information is offered, suggestions are requested, and efforts are directed toward finding sources of help rather than toward attaching blame. Such experiences help to bring understanding and appreciation of the factors behind problems and of the motives behind behavior. Students acquire insight into their parents' problems as well as into their own and develop an appreciation of the effects of worry and economic and emotional strains in the lives of their parents. Problems originating in the home because of the parents' attitude toward and methods of dealing with the adolescent youngster, who is trying to grow up and wants to be on his own, may disappear or become less serious because of changed attitudes and changed methods.

Also, teachers may realize that problems originate in the classroom as well as in the home. Some problems may diminish in intensity or may disappear with changed teacher attitudes and changed classroom methods.

Other procedures may prove equally profitable when carefully planned. Interviews with parents deserve the same careful preparation as counseling interviews. Such interviews should be held with the parents of all students at home or at school, preferably at school. Tours of the school and observation of classes and student activities may give parents more information about school objectives and policy than special bulletins and speeches on the subject can give. Participation in school projects, such as developing a recreation program, refurnishing the rest room, and improving the cafeteria, makes the parent an active participant in school life. Through such experiences parents gain information that may lead to the correction of some conditions producing maladjustment. The student's health problem, for instance, may be largely due to his parents' ignorance or to a lack of supervision at home.

Through participation in school planning and policy making the parent becomes a responsible schoolworker as well as a better informed parent. The father and mother have information that the school needs about the student—his abilities, interests, ambitions, state of physical and mental health, social maturity, special needs, and unusual experiences. In addition to information, parents have helpful suggestions to offer. One school found that the parents' suggestions concerning courses of study, school objectives, vocational information, and social activities were "of definite value to the school in planning its future program."¹ It also reported less resistance to curriculum changes when the parents had a part in planning the changes.

Parent-teacher-association meetings can become conferences concerning the problems and needs of teen-age boys and girls. They provide a useful medium for giving information about the school program, the need for expansion, and the need for moral and financial support. When these meetings are carefully planned, requests for interviews and small group meetings usually follow. Parents want help and information; schools need help

¹ MARION BROWN and others, "Cooperation of Home and School in Guidance," *University High School Journal*, 13:203-211, December, 1934.

and information. Cooperation may bring both the help and information needed and wanted.

When the school has a personnel worker especially trained for work with the home, much can be done to correct conditions contributing to the maladjustment of students. One of the major problems commonly referred to this worker, the visiting teacher, is attendance. When the visiting teacher is a personnel worker rather than a "hooky cop," he views the work as an opportunity to discover the pupils who need special help, places the emphasis upon finding and treating the causes of nonattendance rather than upon the symptom, follows a plan that places the greatest good of the child before the attendance record of the school, and employs the methods of the social case worker rather than those of the truant officer.¹

The report of one school testifies to the value of the trained personnel worker for the welfare of society and of youth in particular. When the attendance work of the public schools of Providence was reorganized and 15 visiting teachers were appointed to do the work previously done by one attendance officer and one clerk, the number of commitments of students to reform school because of truancy was cut from an average of some 200 to an average of 12 a year.²

Shortsighted board members often argue that taxpayers will not permit them to employ special workers for nonteaching services. Taxpayers are interested in saving money. Most taxpayers are also genuinely interested in the welfare of youth and wish them to derive the fullest benefit possible from tax-supported youth-serving agencies. Taxpayers who read school reports which show that the employment by one tax-supported institution of 15 specialists to replace two nonspecialists results in the commitment of an annual average of 188 fewer delinquents to another tax-supported institution may question why such was not done earlier and demand that school boards be more farsighted in future planning. All citizens, perhaps, will be impressed by the great saving of money; some will be more impressed by the great saving of personal happiness for many young people each year.

¹ RUTH STRANG, *Pupil Personnel and Guidance* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940), pp. 75-77.

² Editorial comment in Allen, *op. cit.*, p. 17.

IV. COORDINATION WITH OTHER COMMUNITY AGENCIES

The whole community program of youth services should be so organized that workers in all fields will be able to share their knowledge and resources and to strengthen their programs through an exchange of services. High schools must often seek the assistance of agencies outside the school with their programs of health, leisure-time, social, personal, vocational, religious, and aesthetic guidance. High-school personnel workers can increase this aid by supplying the leadership needed for coordinating community efforts in order to avoid misdirection and dissipation of energy in undertakings of little or of doubtful value. They should be ready to capitalize interests and enthusiasms so that they may hasten the day when the community will have a permanent constructive program of assistance for all youth, in school and out of school.

Adequate constructive social, health, recreational, and vocational-guidance programs for all youth in the community will contribute to the solution of many community as well as many youth problems. Schools, recreation departments, the Scouts and similar organizations, juvenile courts, legal associations, churches and other character-building agencies, community centers, editors of newspapers, parent-teacher associations, and other groups are all interested in the social, emotional, and other adjustment problems of young people. Schools, fraternal orders, agricultural societies, employment agencies, Kiwanis, and other service clubs are all concerned for the vocational and non-vocational needs of youth. Schools, medical societies, clinics, hospitals, and other health agencies wish to secure community conditions conducive to the best possible mental and physical health of all boys and girls. Schools, universities, scholarship associations, professional societies, service clubs, and other groups are all anxious to help intelligent, ambitious young people make and carry out educational plans in keeping with their needs and abilities. All these groups, along with many individual citizens, share the schools' interest in and concern for the welfare of youth.

No one group alone can meet youth's needs. It is the common task of all. Working independently, each accomplishes a great deal; but, compared with the much that needs to be done and the

much that can be done when all forces are united, that great deal seems very little. Each group is glad to give assistance when called upon. Each group wishes to make a strong contribution to the youth-service work. Someday one group, perhaps the schools and perhaps under the direction of a personnel worker, may make the most valuable contribution of all in supplying the leadership needed for coordinating the work of all groups. Some experiments in rural cooperation have proved that much can be done and with effective, far-reaching results when all agencies are utilized in a community cooperative undertaking.¹ Similar success in other communities, rural and urban, will pave the way for coordination of state and national programs.

V. STATE AND NATIONAL COORDINATION

States that have special departments or officials responsible for personnel work sponsor a number of activities of a coordinative nature: They keep schools informed about personnel work in other schools; they issue bulletins and other publications helpful to personnel workers; they establish state committees and organize conferences and workshops on personnel work; they establish experimentation and demonstration centers throughout the state; they develop evaluation procedures and set standards through certification requirements; and they provide consultation service.²

During the 1940's some states established youth commissions in order to secure coordination of the work of all community, state, and Federal youth-serving agencies that were functioning within the state. Some states never provided their commissions sufficient financial support for the work to progress beyond the planning stage. Enough time has not yet elapsed for any really worth-while appraisal to be made of the plans that were actually put into operation. In some states, furthermore, the plans were focused almost exclusively upon the control of juvenile delin-

¹ P. W. CHAPMAN, *Guidance Programs for Rural High Schools*, U.S. Office of Education, Vocational Division Bulletin 203 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1940), 58 pp.

² LEFEVER, TURRELL, and WEITZEL, *op. cit.*, pp. 477-448; DAVID SEGEL and M. M. PROFFITT, *Pupil Personnel Services as a Function of State Departments of Education*, U.S. Office of Education Bulletin 1940, No. 6 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1942), pp. 44-84.

quency. In some states, such as California, proposals were made that were much broader in scope and that included such features as (1) state youth commission made up of representatives of secondary education, recreation and health, industry and labor, Federal youth agencies, religious and social services, and voluntary youth organizations; (2) staff of secretarial assistants, consultants, and research specialists; (3) three-year or longer experimental programs in several communities, some urban and some rural; (4) program centered in the schools; and (5) thorough reorganization of the schools.¹

Coordinative service is supplied on a national scale by the division of occupational information and guidance service of the U.S. Office of Education, which provides field service and operates as an exchange for the collection and distribution of information. This division has supported a number of activities important to vocational guidance. It has helped to inaugurate state programs of vocational guidance, has undertaken research, and has assisted in exploring new areas of guidance activities.

In some states personnel workers seek coordination of their work through state and regional associations. These associations are, in part, coordinated through national societies. And as societies, not as individuals, the national associations are affiliated through the Council of Guidance and Personnel Associations. Unfortunately, all national associations are not members of this organization; and all state and regional groups are not affiliated with the national societies. This limited cooperation means, of course, incomplete coordination, which restricts the contributions of the different associations to the improvement and progress of personnel work.

Coordination on a national scale is also aided by organizations, such as the American Council on Education and the Educational Policies Commission, that report in their publications the activities and recommendations of national groups concerned with personnel work and the findings on personnel work of surveys and other research studies. And summer schools, workshops, and institutes also contribute to national and state coordination. Personnel workers who take part in these activities learn what is being done in other schools and in other sections of the country.

¹ J. PAUL LEONARD, "Proposal for a Concerted Youth Program," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, 16:265-273, May, 1941.

PART III

Epilogue

CHAPTER XIII

SOME FINAL CONVICTIONS

In preparation for writing this book three groups of writings have been examined:—the writings of those accepted as authorities, the descriptive accounts of high-school personnel programs and practices, and the reports of surveys and of other investigations of secondary-school personnel work. The writings of the authorities show that they consider the primary objective of personnel work to be the optimum development of each student as a group member. The writings of the high-school workers show that they accept this objective but that some are confused concerning what to do in order to attain it.

The answers as to functions or services, procedures, methods, and techniques are given in the literature, in the writings of the authorities. All services may not be considered equally important by all writers; all methods may not be found equally useful; and points emphasized by some are held negligible by others; but all services are accepted; and all methods are recognized by all. That many high-school people think that they have found the answers in the writings of the authorities is disclosed in their own writings, in the accounts of their own personnel programs and practices. The pictures given in these enthusiastic accounts are very good ones. It is obvious that the workers wish to believe that personnel work in the high schools, and especially in one's own school, is the same as that endorsed by some authority or authorities; and they imply that their practices approximate what the authorities preach.

But an entirely different picture is revealed in the third group of writings, the reports of surveys and of other research studies. This picture of personnel work as it actually is, is very different from the picture of personnel work as the authorities say that it should be and as the workers like to think that it is. A study of the two pictures provides a subject for serious pondering; but, however deep the meditations or however philosophical the

thoughts, the conclusion can be only one, the same conclusion reached by Tweedledee in another situation, a conclusion that he announced in language not too academic and proudly labeled as logic: "If it was so, it might be; and if it were so, it would be; but as it isn't, it ain't. That's logic."

There is no escaping the logic of the personnel situation. If personnel work in the high schools were what the authorities say that it should be, it would supply an important part of the answer to the problem of how to serve youth's needs; but it isn't. And if one were to ask why not, he would find the answer in the same reference in which he found the conclusion stated. Tweedledee also gives the answer when he recites "The Walrus and the Carpenter":

You could not see a cloud, because
No cloud was in the sky;
No birds were flying overhead—
There were no birds to fly.

Too often there is no personnel work in the high schools because there are no personnel workers. In these schools students often do not receive counseling assistance because there are no counselors. Personnel work, the undefined part of education, having been made the responsibility of everybody, is too often done by nobody.

THE CONCLUSIONS

One needs to examine only a portion of this large body of literature on personnel work to arrive at certain general conclusions regarding high-school personnel work today. The principal conclusion concerning the discrepancy between theory and practice is really too obvious to deserve comment. Yet it is accepted too complacently in education to be permitted to pass without comment. Educators have lived so long with their special vice—wide gaps between theory and practice—that they now supply strong evidence of the soundness of Pope's observation regarding man's attitude toward vice: "Familiar with her face, We first endure, then pity, then embrace." Were we less tolerant toward education's hiatuses, some conclusions from our readings and observations might be more pleasing.

The examination of the literature on personnel work shows:

1. There is a steadily increasing awareness on the part of both school and nonschool people concerning the importance of and the need for personnel work as an integral part of secondary education.

2. The awareness of the need for personnel work is not always accompanied by an understanding of its nature and function sufficiently strong and sufficiently definite to bring about provision for the minimum essentials of time, budget, training, and leadership. Too commonly awareness finds expression in lip worship only. When it is given more concrete expression in practice, it too often means hasty adoption through general indiscriminate provision for "guidance by classroom teachers" without the teachers' being given an opportunity to gain either understanding of or training for the work. Consequently, it is not surprising to read that in some schools "guidance doesn't work." Awareness must mean something more than a vague perception of something being needed in order to help youth meet their problems. That something must be known, understood, and appreciated to the point of willingness to pay the price for its attainment.

3. As the consequence of inadequate provision resulting from inadequate understanding, much that is being done in the guise of personnel work is superficial and useless; and some of it is actually harmful.

4. Personnel work does not and cannot supply the answers to all of education's perplexities; but, when provided for properly, it can make and in some schools is making important contributions to the solution of some of its most pressing problems.

5. Good personnel work alone will not solve many problems. Personnel work is bound up in the other parts of high-school education; its strength is determined by their strengths; and its weakness increases their weaknesses. Personnel work is a definite distinct part of secondary education, but it cannot operate effectively as a definitely separated part.

6. The schools in which personnel work is functioning most effectively and contributing most efficiently to the improvement of high-school education are the schools in which educational administration has assumed responsibility for providing the features essential to a good program of personnel work:—(1)

the services of a specially trained, qualified leader; (2) a sufficient number of selected, capable, willing, and interested workers; (3) sufficient time for adequate performance of all phases of the work; and (4) a plan of organization that makes possible the fixing of administrative responsibility and the coordination of the efforts of all personnel workers.

7. In order that personnel work may make its full contribution to education, professionalization of the field is needed. Professionalization requires the establishment of professional standards through certification regulations and the mobilization of professional strength through organization.

INCREASED AWARENESS OF AN INCREASED NEED

Personnel work came into the high schools during the first part of this century as a practical solution to certain pressing youth problems created by changed social and economic conditions and brought to light by the First World War and the ensuing period of social and economic disarrangement. Unable to cope longer with these problems through the home, the church, industry, and other agencies, society made them the obligations of the schools by insisting that youth problems become educational problems. And, as modern life increases in complexity and tempo, society is shifting even more of its problems to the schools.

The high schools have accepted these problems. Not always understanding sufficiently well either the nature or the urgency of youth's needs, the schools have not always provided for them sufficiently well. For this, perhaps, they deserve no special criticism; they may only be reflecting the confusion of the society which they seek to serve. The schools have, perhaps, been confused; but they have not been indifferent to the demands for a new kind of education, an education more helpful in preparing youth for life in a new kind of society. The schools have shown their concern for the problem by accepting new educational objectives, by trying to shift the emphasis from the intellectual conditioning of youth to preparing them for efficient living in modern America, by revising their curriculums, and by enriching school life.

During the teens and the twenties many schools discovered the value of personnel work for providing the services needed in

assisting students with special problems. At first the work was provided primarily in order to give assistance in only one or two adjustment areas, usually the educational and the vocational. During the thirties, however, the work expanded to include other life-adjustment needs. Although the youth studies of the depression years brought an increased emphasis upon the giving of vocational-guidance assistance, they also disclosed that the vocational was only one of the many problems perplexing young people. These studies showed, among other things, that youth did not know how to put leisure time to good use; that they were not ready for their roles in community and family life; that too many of them were incipient neurotics and psychotics; that they were not always fully sensible of either the privileges or the responsibilities of citizenship; and that they were anxious and fearful about problems of health, personal development, social behavior, interpersonal relations, religion, and morals. Because the studies showed these problems to be of social as well as of individual significance, society looked to the schools to assume responsibility for helping youth to deal with them. To their new educational objectives the schools now added others: social integration of students; discovery of their interests, aptitudes, and capacities; guidance into desirable social relationships; maximum personality development.¹ Schools that accepted these objectives could no longer limit personnel work to the giving of educational and vocational guidance; they had to provide guidance for all phases of development.

To the old problems produced by the First World War, the boom period, and the depression years have been added the new ones resulting from the distressing human and disturbing economic issues of the Second World War. Society has been made more keenly aware of the nonvocational problems of young people and of their need for aid in dealing with them. Depressed by the crime and the moral unrest among youth, society is today seeking more help from its schools and is becoming more specific in its requests. The people no longer are saying vaguely, "Do something for our boys and girls"; they are saying specifically, "Give them more guidance and more counseling." Having seen

¹ "Issues of Secondary Education," Report of the Committee on the Orientation of Secondary Education, *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-school Principals*, 20:7-349, January, 1936.

demonstrated in a limited number of schools the great potentiality of personnel work for meeting student needs and aiding student growth, the people believe that it supplies the solution to youth's problems; and through proposals, recommendations, and pleas for more "guidance" and "counseling" in the high schools they are seeking more and better personnel services for their children.

INDISCRIMINATE PROVISION NOT THE ANSWER

High-school people, and personnel workers in particular, know that a good personnel program cannot solve all educational problems. They do know, however, that it does make a strong contribution to the solution; and they show appreciation of its value in their enthusiastic accounts of personnel programs and practices. The failure to provide more generally the kind of personnel work needed and wanted is due, no doubt, to the reluctance of many schools to adopt adequate educational concepts. Failing to recognize that the new kind of service sought cannot be provided sufficiently well through the traditional patterns of classroom activity, the schools have perfunctorily added "guidance" to classroom duties and have made their teachers counselors.

Although personnel work must never be divorced from classroom work, neither can personnel work be provided through class methods alone, no matter how modern these methods may be. The work is much too technical in nature and much too broad in scope for such to be possible. Any classwork based on the principles represented by the "personnel point of view" will undoubtedly contribute to a more socially functional education, but personnel programs provided exclusively through the classroom will necessarily be incomplete ones because not all classroom teachers are equipped to deal with the noninstructional needs of students. Williamson and Hahn well sum up the situation when they state that "differentiation of functions, specialization of techniques, and coordination of programs is a far more promising approach to the problems of youth than is the current attempt to 'high pressure' teachers into attempting a thousand tasks beyond instruction."¹

Many objectives of personnel work cannot be achieved solely

¹ E. G. WILLIAMSON and M. E. HAHN, *Introduction to High School Counseling* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1940), p. 45.

through instruction and discussion. Students learn many things through personal experiences that they can only dimly perceive through theoretical and abstract discussions. To secure these experiences, they need the informality and self-direction made possible by spontaneous group activity. Students usually acquire socially acceptable moral attitudes and attitudes of concern and of responsibility for group welfare more quickly and more easily through participation in appropriate satisfying group activities under the indirect guidance of a skilled and understanding leader than they do through participation in class discussions, however democratic the class procedures or however conducive to creative and reflective group thinking. Students may gain much that is helpful for the development of character and of civic interest and intelligence through participation in the discussion and activities of a social-studies class; but they gain more permanent achievement in this direction through guided participation in the management of student group life and community activities when these activities are carefully organized, interpreted, and understood. Moreover, a student may secure much needed vocational information through inspection trips and class discussions of the trips; but without counseling assistance he may be unable to make personal application of the information gained because of lack of insight into and understanding of his individual problems and needs.

ADEQUATE PROVISION ESSENTIAL TO ADEQUATE SOLUTION

To provide students special assistance through personnel services, high schools will have to make special provision for the work. To say that this is too difficult and to continue to rely upon old patterns and procedures is to admit that education changes too slowly and to pretend that the schools can equip youth properly for the battles of tomorrow with the weapons of yesterday.

To make the needed changes and additions, the schools must first gain public understanding and public support. They first may have to educate the public to bear its share of the responsibility for meeting youth's needs. The public needs to know that the problem is not an easy one, that it cannot be solved simply by raising or lowering the age for school attendance, by rearranging school curriculums, and by becoming more strict or less strict

with young people. If the people really wish the schools to provide "guidance" and "counseling" that contribute to the best maturation and optimum growth of boys and girls, they must make it possible for the schools to supply the essential features:—fully qualified and trained leaders who understand what personnel work is; a sufficient number of trained, capable, interested, and willing personnel workers; sufficient time for performing all personnel services, including continuous inservice education of teachers for their personnel functions; understanding support by general administration; and personnel services that are well implemented and coordinated.

Public education is one of the largest and most important enterprises of the American people. Schools might increase the dividends of this tremendous investment were they to adopt some of the practices of business. When planning changes and expansion, business carefully studies its new enterprises and painstakingly selects the persons to be put in charge of them. If it can find no worker properly trained for the task, it selects one with the other desired qualifications and sends him off to secure the training needed. When a qualified trained leader is found, business provides him the workers needed to carry out the undertaking; but only after these workers have been properly trained and tested does it permit them to serve the public. Schools would do well to follow the same practices. Schools that seek to initiate personnel programs should ensure the success of the new undertaking by putting it in charge of a trained qualified leader. And they should make possible the efficient maintenance of all aspects of the program by providing the leader the needed number of trained and tested assistants.

Providing a qualified leader and selecting and training workers are not, however, sufficient. Personnel workers must be given the time to do the work, not class time or time before or after school, but time that is part of the regular school day and that is set aside exclusively for personnel work. The workers, moreover, must have sufficient time to be able to give a student help at the time that he needs it. It not, they may find when they are free to see him that, discouraged by the delay, he has dropped out of school or that his problem has become so serious that much more time is now needed than at first or that his problem is no longer amenable to treatment. And personnel work must be well

planned and well coordinated so that responsibility may be fixed for all parts of the program, so that time and energy may not be dissipated in wasteful duplication, so that the work of one person may not be limited in its effectiveness because of failure on the part of others to provide the necessary supplementary services.

The first step toward providing the essential features of a good personnel program is, obviously, one of providing for the work financially. The personnel program must be adequately represented in the budget. To provide for the salaries of the necessary number of personnel workers and to make no provision in the budget for the clerical assistance and the physical equipment needed is not to make adequate provision. Nor is it good business for a school to employ a trained qualified leader and then have him spend in routine clerical work the time that is needed for developing the program, for directing and training other workers, and for performing the special services for which he has been trained. Schools should not permit their few specialists to give their time to duties easily performed by file clerks, stenographers, and other less highly trained employees.

Personnel workers must improve and strengthen their work through professionalization of the field. Only through some form of certification has any profession ever been able to make sure that its members would obtain the technical training recommended and meet the desired professional standards. Unfortunately, the certification requirements that have been formulated in a few states tend to place too exclusive emphasis upon educational and vocational guidance. They fail to ensure that the personnel worker has the skills, the understanding of human relations, of personal and social development, of group methods, and the other knowledge needed in order that he may be qualified to assist the student in achieving satisfactory adjustment in all areas of his life. It is important that possession of these skills and knowledge also be ensured through certification regulations.

Professionalization should be aided through national coordination. Professional force through national union is lost if workers concentrate their efforts divisively in different national associations. These unit associations are needed for the development of knowledge and of professional interest in the areas represented by them; but only when members of all associations are joined

in efforts to set standards sufficiently high to be called professional, to secure the careful extensive research needed, and to ensure improvement of all personnel work on a national scale through advisory and other professional coordinative services will personnel work be able to class itself with assurance among the other professions.

THE HOPE

In its efforts to adjust to the major changes in society, secondary education has formulated new objectives based on individual needs and social demands. Schools are now seeking practices suitable to the attainment of these objectives. Some schools, unable to break loose from systematized thought and practice, still hope to attain them through educational stereotypes. Other schools hope to attain the new objectives through practices truly adapted to the dominant ideal of individual and social needs. And some educators believe that the hope of this better group can be fulfilled through widespread adoption of personnel practices.

Personnel work is built upon respect for the dignity and the worth of the individual, upon belief in his moral worth, upon concern for his happiness and welfare, and upon desire to promote his optimum development. It seeks to conserve the highest value of the American people—faith in the supreme importance of human life, happiness, and well-being. It seeks full understanding of all students as individuals in order to provide the services, experiences, and environments that will stimulate young people to attain the highest possible levels of maturity—physical, intellectual, emotional, personal, and social. In doing this, personnel work serves both individual and social needs because the student who is able to attain full maturity in all directions becomes the adult citizen who is best able to strengthen the purposes and the values of his society.

The values of a society are determined by those of its members. Because the values of an individual are determined by the quality of his experiences, schools should try to increase the quality of a student's experiences. The personnel worker who is skilled in diagnosing individual needs in relation to social demands can guide a student into worth-while experiences and assist him in selecting and in making his own the significant values found

therein. In this way the worker helps the student to direct himself toward some sort of personal Utopia. If personnel work makes that Utopia a little nearer and helps the student to approach it a little faster, it achieves both personal and social significance.

In the face of grave social problems today high schools are seeking to devise educational programs that will produce citizens able to cope intelligently with these problems and able to contribute to the progressive development of democracy. Although no authority on personnel work maintains that through provision for a good personnel program alone schools will be able to provide the kind of education needed for training the kind of citizens needed, the literature shows that many educators do heartily believe that any adequate educational program must include, if not actually be built upon, a sound program of personnel work. By making personnel work the keystone of secondary education, school can come "to mean a place to live and to learn richly, and to grow in all directions the better to enjoy and to add to life."¹

¹ H. R. DOUGLASS, "The Problems of Youth," *North Central Association Quarterly*, 13:231, October, 1938.

CHAPTER XIV

THE NATION HEEDS THE CRY OF THE CHILDREN

During the 1930's America saw that all was not well with her youth and asked them the reason for their plight. Youth gave answer as best they could. Often their answers were clumsy and blunt; at times they were so poorly worded as to be scarcely intelligible. On some points youth seemed almost inarticulate. Not knowing or not understanding the cause or the nature of their problems, they could not very well explain them. And so America sent forth her wise men to study the problems of youth and to report upon conditions as seen in the light of their greater understanding. The wise men observed and talked with boys and girls in all parts of the country. They then made their reports to the nation.

Since the publication of the reports, the country has been busy seeking action that might lead to correction of the conditions found undesirable. Much activity is now being reported. Should America once more send forth her wise men, this time to ask her youth, "Do you find all this activity good for you?" again a great many might answer, "No." And again to some persons this might seem an ungrateful answer. What right would young people have to say that the action taken in their behalf is not good? Have not many activities been undertaken to better conditions for them? Is not special activity being carried on in their name in practically every area of life in almost every part of the land?

Yes, there has been much activity undertaken in the name of youth. So much is being reported that at times it seems that the country is using activity per se as a way to escape facing squarely the problems of her youth. As organization after organization announces a youth program, as the press sends forth column after column devoted to the cause of youth, as the radio fills the air with speeches, some truly fine, about America's obligations to her youth, as citizens come together in small and large groups

to hear about and to talk about the problems of youth, one wonders sometimes whether much of this activity is not of the follow-the-band variety. Are loud talking and spasmodic acting being frequently used instead of a better type of activity because the people are confused and uncertain regarding the type needed? Or are they really not sincere when loudly professing strong love for youth? Time will bring a clarification of this point; but sufficient time has already passed for it to become clear, as more than one observer has already pointed out, that, in dealing with her youth problem, America is too often letting herself be guided by the recommendation in the navy doggerel:

When in danger, when in doubt,
Run in circles, yell and shout.

PROGRAMS TO COMBAT YOUTH'S PROBLEMS

Youth might be justified in labeling "not good" some activities undertaken in their name; but not all activities are of the hand-wringing, yelling, and shouting variety. Much good activity is being planned, and some is being carried out, in practically every area of life in almost every part of the land. And much of this activity is being directed toward solution of the problems brought to light or emphasized in the youth-study reports.

To combat the leisure-time problem, the average community is now seeking better provision for and improvement of space, equipment, and personnel for libraries, playgrounds, public parks, day camps, and other parts of their public recreation programs. Many communities are making better use of school buildings for this purpose, some even providing neighborhood school programs lasting until 10 P.M. around the year. Some communities have opened youth centers and teen-age clubs and canteens. Others, adopting the neighborhood approach, are opening community and neighborhood centers with full leisure programs. And some, such as Middletown, Ohio, employ full-time directors to stimulate family, neighborhood, and community-wide programs for both children and adults.

Many of these public recreation programs are good programs. Too many, however, lack permanence and stability. Many youth centers and canteens are closed shortly after being opened. Some are closed because there are no clients. Too often citizens

fail to realize that provision for recreational opportunities alone is not enough, that young people must be permitted to have a part in the planning and the directing. Other centers are closed because clubrooms are "misused" or because funds are not handled properly or because the young people plan much and accomplish little. In most instances, however, adults should share with youth the blame for these failures. Without the benefit of guidance by some sensible, understanding, sympathetic adult, youth often overleap bounds, stumble into the pitfalls of ignorance and inexperience, and concoct plans that are too big or are otherwise not sound or feasible. In some communities grownups take a laissez-faire stand with regard to youth-initiated projects, leaving the young people to do all the planning and directing alone. They do not stand by ready to help but stand ready, instead, to criticize and condemn when the young folks' not-well-laid plans go awry. In other communities young people may receive plenty of advice and help at the beginning when there is much excitement over the new undertaking. But when the excitement dies down, when the novelty of the project wears off, and when there is much less talk of the fine thing being done, youth's advisers and backers grow weary of the doing. Rendering a splendid service becomes only doing one's duty. And when a service is performed merely for duty's sake, it quickly becomes tedious and soon becomes little more than drudgery. Announcing that they have served long enough and that it is now time for someone else to take a turn, the adults abandon the enterprise one by one for some new and, hence, more appealing project. The young people are then left to carry on alone. But they do not always carry on, for many lack the experience and training needed for building good plans or for keeping the good ones built from falling apart.

The youth studies showed that young people did not understand their roles in community life and did not always appreciate either the privileges or the responsibilities of citizenship. Many communities are now trying to increase youth's appreciation through efforts to make the coming of age in terms of civic maturity a more meaningful event. In these communities some provision is usually made for a formal induction into the privileges and responsibilities of citizenship. At times the ritualistic procedure is no more than a public ceremony held

shortly before the time when the young people are to cast their first vote. In other communities the ceremony is preceded by a training period in which by special instruction given through public meetings, forums, newspaper articles, radio programs, discussion groups, and the like an earnest effort is made to invest civic status with new significance and to help young people to understand and to appreciate the rights and responsibilities involved therein. One state, believing that recognition of civic maturity is delayed too long, has lowered the voting age from twenty-one to eighteen. Since the child is not kept safely detached until age twenty-one from other adult affairs, such as waging war, his civic status, this state believes, should be more clearly defined at an earlier age and the adolescent thus be given some relief from the strain and conflict of having his maturity recognized in some spheres but denied in others. Other communities, without granting the suffrage right, are also seeking better preparation for adult citizenship by permitting youth greater participation in other adult civic activities.

And what has been done about youth's vocational problems? Not very much, really. Because youth's work services have been temporarily in great demand, many people have apparently thought that their vocational problems have been permanently solved. Furthermore, much of the action that has been taken has been of a negative rather than of a positive character. During the war period the Federal government liquidated its two agencies set up to provide youth vocational assistance—the National Youth Administration and the Civilian Conservation Corps. And almost all the junior divisions of the U.S. Employment Service were discontinued at that time. The schools also permitted the war to bring about a diminution of vocational-guidance service. Some schools with well-developed cooperative programs in various occupational fields permitted these programs to be discarded. In many schools vocational guidance practically disappeared because of a lack of counselors. War needs caused other schools to place the emphasis upon vocational education. This frequently meant that vocational guidance was overlooked or neglected. Oftentimes it ceased to perform its proper function. Misguided patriotism caused some vocational counselors to forget their obligation to preserve certain well-tested basic principles of their work. One counselor, for example, wrote that

the national emergency required students to "give up their much cherished freedom of choice prerogative and select those subjects that will provide the skills and knowledge that the nation needs."¹ Others, however, saw the dangers involved in stampeding youth into making haphazard educational and vocational choices and warned that choices made out of the exigencies of war and in disregard for personal suitability would bring frustration, disappointment, and unsatisfactory performance for many competent youth.²

During the war years many schools did initiate work-experience programs for their students. Comment has already been made regarding the undesirable character of some hastily installed programs. There is no dodging the fact that many youth were exploited during these years and that, as a result, much of the action taken in their behalf had to be taken largely for the purpose of protection. Some states took action to secure better enforcement of existing child-labor and compulsory school-attendance laws; others, as Maine and New York, passed legislation to tighten up the laws. A number, as California, Texas, Illinois, and Michigan, took legislative action to raise the age for youth employment from fourteen to sixteen; and some, as New York, enacted bills limiting the hours of employment for young people in afterschool jobs. The National Child Labor Committee began action to prohibit employment of children under sixteen years of age in intrastate employment. This organization also entered upon a careful comprehensive study of part-time employment of high-school students. The reports show that when school supervision is provided, school leaving is reduced and students receive better training and experience than when they are left to find afterschool and week-end jobs for themselves.

The picture of vocational guidance during the war years is not, however, altogether a gloomy one. In many ways vocational guidance will become stronger because of the nation's wartime experiences. Certainly the need for more and for better vocational guidance was clearly revealed to many communities. New

¹ E. W. SEIBERT, "Guidance of Wartime Studies," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, 16:455, March, 1943.

² "Counseling Youth for Wartime Jobs," *Occupations*, 21:5-8, September, 1942; W. A. FREDENBURGH, "War Demands for Student Personnel Service," *School and Society*, 57:255-258, March, 1943.

techniques and instruments, developed for use in the armed forces and the war industries, will contribute to improved vocational guidance in schools and colleges. And much done in the way of vocational guidance for the veterans and the warworkers will undoubtedly lead to improved peacetime guidance for youth and adults on the part of both school and nonschool agencies.

Few states have heeded the plea of the youngster, quoted in Chap. I, who said that he would have been saved "a lot of worry and suffering" had there been a law "stating that children up to the age of 18 are required to attend school"; but a number of states have raised the age for compulsory school attendance from fourteen to sixteen. The Educational Policies Commission, however, agrees with the youngster and emphasizes that the economic well-being of the nation as well as of the individual requires that the compulsory school-attendance age be raised. It proposes that the average period of compulsory attendance be increased to fourteen years.¹ In most states it is now seven or eight.

Moreover, little has yet been done about the school inequalities that the youth studies revealed "with monotonous regularity." The nation has not yet seen fit to provide the Federal support needed to correct the shocking inequalities for educational opportunity that now exist; but a number of organizations, foremost among these the National Education Association and the American Council on Education, are making strenuous efforts to arouse public interest and concern. The American Council on Education's cooperative study of public school expenditures is one of the most exhaustive educational investigations ever undertaken. Now that the inquiry has been completed and its findings have been reported,² perhaps more definite action can be hoped for. The report shows clearly that millions of American boys and girls will be denied an acceptable minimum of educational opportunity as long as the financing of education depends almost entirely upon the fiscal resources of individual states.

¹ Educational Policies Commission, *Education and Economic Well-being in American Democracy* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1940), pp. 128-130.

² JOHN K. NORTON and others, *An Inventory of Public School Expenditures in the United States: A Report of the Cooperative Study of Public School Expenditures* (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1944), Vols. I and II, 408 pp.

The investigations of the 1930's also showed that youth's health problems were serious ones. Any doubt that the nation might have had concerning the reliability of the findings was later dispelled by the war-induction-board reports. And the nation soon learned that the health situation was even more serious than these reports indicated, for each month thousands of men had to be discharged from military service because they were physically or mentally unfit. Each month of one year about 45 per cent of the medical discharges (some 27,000 men) were for various types of neuropsychiatric disorders.¹ And so America is speeding up action to safeguard and to improve the health of her people. Mental-health clinics are being established in small towns as well as in large cities, and traveling clinics are being sent into more nonurban areas. Public health services are being more widely provided, and surveys are being made to discover what services are most needed and where. Better provision is also being made for health education and health guidance through the schools. Many persons believe that the present limited school-lunch program should be expanded into a nation-wide one. Some citizens support the plan because they see in it a useful means for providing an outlet for agricultural products; others wish the program because they see it as a useful means for improving the nutrition and, hence, the health of school children. They also see it as an excellent educational medium for establishing throughout the country better habits in regard to nutritious diets.

Many youth problems stem from the problems of childhood, and especially from those of family relations. To help the youth of tomorrow, greater attention is now being given to the welfare of the children of today; for America has come to realize, as did Schiller long ago, that "in today already walks tomorrow." Child-welfare agencies are being better staffed and financed. Child-guidance clinics are being organized by state and local governments, by public and private agencies, by labor unions, and by other groups of citizens. In a New York town a child-guidance clinic was organized by a group of women interested in child welfare and with the hope that, once the need for the clinic was recognized, some public agency would take it over. In a

¹ Editorial comment in *Mental Hygiene*, 29:334, April, 1945.

New Jersey city a parent-guidance bureau and clinic was the first project of a CIO labor union's organization for social service. Moreover, a greater effort is now being made to provide clinic service for the large group of families between the very rich and the very poor, families that cannot afford to pay the fees of the private clinics and are not eligible for or not willing to accept free service. In the New York clinic referred to above, for example, fees are charged on a sliding scale, ranging from 25 cents to \$3. A Jewish organization recently organized the first nonprofit fee-charging service in New York City. In this clinic, where the ability to pay determines the fee, some 6,200 parents and children were served during the first year.

Many youth programs are being focused largely upon the correction and control of delinquent and defective youth. In Philadelphia, plans for an over-all community crime-prevention program include, in addition to law enforcement, such elements as child guidance, school participation, church participation, neighborhood activities, and coordination. Juvenile delinquency has been given official recognition by the FBI's Police Academy where future G-men are now instructed in the psychology of adolescence and are taught how to deal with teen-age offenders. States are also recognizing that juvenile delinquents should not be dealt with in the same way as adult criminals. New York, for example, is following the recommendations of the Interdepartmental Committee on Juvenile Delinquency, which include appointment of a temporary State-Youth Commission and establishment by counties and cities of state-wide youth bureaus and education and recreation projects. Other states are enacting legislation designed to streamline procedures for the court handling and treatment of young delinquents. California has such cases handled by a Youth Authority. Some states permit the juvenile courts to handle these cases unofficially, give the courts limited jurisdiction over parents, and permit commitments for indeterminate sentences.

Some activity in this area has been in the form of name changing. In one state a "parole" is now a "leave of absence." And more than one state has passed legislation to take from youth the stigma of such labels as "dependent," "neglected," or "delinquent." Some youth, however, may agree with the poet concerning the general efficacy of name changing for altering

basic facts. Activity of this type will always need to be accompanied by activity of a more definitely ameliorative nature.

Most states are today making better provision than formerly for the care and training of youth whose problems are associated with mental deficiency. Legislation has been enacted in some states to permit the handling of such young people in separate hospitals or in separate hospital units; to authorize state care elsewhere than in institutions; and to provide the special treatment and training, especially vocational, needed for socialization of these young persons. Some states permit juvenile courts to place delinquent youth suspected of being mentally deficient in state homes for a period of observation and make it possible for admissions to state hospitals to be made on a medical rather than on a strictly legal basis in order to save the child the ego threat of "criminal proceedings."

All such activity in behalf of the juvenile delinquent and the mentally deficient is good activity and should be continued and increased. But youth programs should not be focused too exclusively, as is frequently the case, upon helping the problem child. More efforts must be expended in planning and carrying out programs of a preventive and developmental nature designed to help all youth, the nonproblem as well as the problem children. States and local communities, like the schools, need to learn that, when needed services are adequately provided for all young people, problem boys and girls decrease in number and the problems of all boys and girls may grow smaller in number or less heavy in weight.

BETTER YOUTH PROGRAMS NEEDED

It can be seen from the brief outline given above that America is heeding the cry of her children. Much of the activity, taken in response to their cry, is good activity and some of it poor. Some is poor activity because wasteful, and it is wasteful because not too well planned or too well organized. To avoid the waste of duplication and of disorganized action, various efforts have been made at coordination. The Associated Youth-serving Organizations, for example, was formed in 1943 to secure closer collaboration among the national voluntary agencies and in this way to promote the welfare of youth more effectively and more economically. To avoid the waste of activity poorly

planned and based on too little information, a number of groups have sought to provide communities and organizations the guidance and information needed for better planning and more adequate performance. Space permits reference to only three: The American Association of University Women has published a guide for local inquiry into what is and is not being done by way of community planning. The U.S. Children's Bureau has published a number of manuals for the use of planning committees. In 1942 the American Council on Education set up its Committee on Youth Problems to act as a clearinghouse of information on youth developments and problems.

The greatest amount of public attention has, perhaps, been attracted to action planned and carried out, or directed, at the national and state levels. But the nation is beginning to recognize that more stress should be placed upon the responsibility of every community to see that its resources are used to the full in developing and implementing sound, comprehensive programs for youth welfare. It is not strange that many people should believe that the youth situation cannot be improved to any great extent until local communities play a more important role in the planning and the doing, for historically the local community has been the mainspring of social action in this country. In the opinion of many people, it is in the young person's home town where he does his growing up, his living, and his learning that his needs can be best met if these needs are known and understood as the normal needs of youth. To help home communities to know and understand these needs and to discover how they can best provide the materials, services, and experiences needed by their boys and girls has become the principal objective of several important national organizations.

National and state programs will, however, always be essential, for certain problems are of greater than community scope and concern. National and state organizations are needed for supplying leadership in identifying and studying problems that require careful extensive research and national, or state, rather than local perspective. Moreover, national and state agencies have important functions to perform as service agencies in providing the stimulation, information, and guidance (but not prescription) needed by leaders and other workers in the local communities. And these agencies have important contributions

to make through exploratory and experimental work in communities selected for this purpose. Such demonstration work will facilitate the initiation of new services and the proper modifications of old. During periods of crisis and emergency, national and state agencies have more decisive roles to play when immediate widespread action is needed and local action is impeded or is insufficient, as was the case during the war and during the period of great economic depression. No adequate program of national or state leadership can be expected, however, unless provision is made for generous Federal and state support.

The extent to which the planning and carrying out of a community youth program will be successful will be determined largely by the extent to which the workers are able to avoid or to overcome certain obstacles potentially in the way of any group enterprise: (1) inertia because of indifference, carelessness, and complacency on the part of many citizens; (2) inability to secure concerted action because of haphazard organization or friction; (3) exploitation of the program for the protection or promotion of individual or special group interests; and (4) lack of honest, farsighted, dynamic leadership.

Any program that is unhampered by the fourth obstacle is in much less danger of failure because of the first three than it would be otherwise. There is always a strong possibility that indifferent citizens will be roused from inertia, that feuding factions can be brought to work together, and that schemers intent upon exploiting or perverting the program for selfish reasons will be exposed if the community program is steered by leaders who possess a vision so great that they do not lose sight of their goal, despite many obstructions; who have faith in themselves and their fellow workers, in their own ability and in that of others to achieve that goal; and who have the willingness to sacrifice and the courage to struggle long and hard in order to make possible the goal desired—a community, a school, and a community life that is good for every individual boy or girl.

It is not likely that any community program is being planned or is under way in which the schools are not given an important part. In the long run, however, the real importance of the schools' part in the total youth program will be only in proportion to their success in recognizing, understanding, and meeting the needs of all the boys and girls entrusted to them. This, of

course, holds true for all participants in the program: parents, teachers, social workers, religious workers, and others. But because the schools have the community's boys and girls for more hours of the day and for more days of the year than has any other agent, with the exception of the home, the community may rightly expect the schools to assume a very large share and an important part of the work of the total program.

Schools anxious to fulfill well their functions in society's program set up to help youth to learn to live well, both now and in the future, are exploring new ways of improving life within the schools. Some new ways have produced results of doubtful value; others show results sufficiently strong and fine to indicate that, were the schools to explore and to develop them further, they would find them valuable aids for providing the type of education sought, an education that is good for the nation because it is good for the individual. Foremost among the innovations that have proved most valuable and that should, therefore, be further strengthened and more widely used is the one described in this book as student personnel work.

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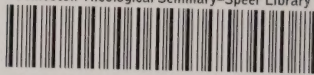
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